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ABSTRACT

This is a teacher's guide and end of year summary for an eleventh grade course on area studies. The course is part of an articulated curriculum for grades K-12. The guide contains goals for the course which are related to values, skills, and concepts and generalizations. The focus of the course is on problems of four selected areas: Western Europe, USSR, China, and India. A general outline of the course describes each of the four units and the course summary. The place of the course in the overall curriculum is explained. The format of the resource units is presented as are the factors to consider in adapting the resource units to specific courses. Charts appended to the guide indicate the way in which goals were developed in the different units. The course summary lists the generalizations and attitudes which comprise the course objectives, along with suggested procedures for leading a class in the summary. The unit on Western Europe is comprised of SO 006 321, SO 006 322, and SO 006 323; the USSR of SO 006 324, SO 006 325, SO 006 326, SO 006 327, and SO 006 328. The unit on China is SO 006 329 and on India is SO 006 330. (Author/KSM)

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# TEACHER'S GUIDE TO THE
# ELEVENTH GRADE COURSE
# on
# AREA STUDIES

These courses are part of an articulated curriculum for grades K-12 and have been developed by the Project Social Studies Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota.

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# GOALS FOR THE COURSE

The resource units make it clear that the eleventh grade course is designed to teach attitudes and skills as well as concepts and generalizations. This section deals briefly with objectives for the course. Charts appended to this guide indicate more specifically the way in which goals were developed in the different units.

## Behavioral Goals Related to Values

The eleventh grade course was developed with a view to helping students develop most of the scholarly values identified by the Center's staff for the entire social studies program. It was designed also to develop a number of the public values or values related to the ground rules of a democratic society. It should be noted, moreover, that some of these attitudes are basic to an overall value not stated for each of the units--the value of human dignity. Most pupils will come to the course with a fairly well-developed value for human dignity as a result of previous experiences at home, in school, in church, and in their many informal groups. Probably, some specific values of this course will develop as pupils see the need for certain things to protect this major value. However, the content used to teach these other values, such as those related to procedural safeguards, freedom of thought and expression, and equality of opportunity may also help reinforce students' attitudes toward human dignity. The value for human dignity is closely related to two behavioral goals stated in several of the units--those of evaluating both institutions and proposals in terms of their effects upon human beings.

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The eleventh grade course is also designed to develop several attitudes which are likely to arise from the study of social science content. For example, most of the units try to help students develop a scepticism of single-factor causation in the social sciences and of panaceas.

It should not be thought that some of the goals are neglected merely because there is no check against them under a specific unit in the chart. The checks indicate those units where the goals have been important in designing specific activities. Many of the others will be reinforced in units in which they are not checked.

### Skills

This course attempts to develop many skills. A large number of the skills are related to methods of inquiry, but they are not the only skills taught. Most of these skills are not introduced for the first time in this course. Those which are taught in earlier courses are marked by stars on the chart on sequential development of skills on pages 15-18.

It should be noted that although some of these skills are not listed as objectives in more than one unit, later units give students opportunities to practice and improve the skill. Teachers may find that they should work intensively on the skill in a number of units. If so, they should list it as an objective of the later teaching units.

Some of the skills objectives should be taught in all of the units for which they are listed. These are the thinking skills related to inquiry and critical evaluation and some of the map-reading skills.

Other skills, too, are listed for more than one unit. However, the teacher may decide to postpone teaching the skill in the first unit in which it is listed. Or he may think that it is unnecessary to teach it to all pupils in the second unit in which it is found, even though he may wish to work on the skill with a small group of students who still need help on it.

### Goals Related to Concepts and Generalizations

The Center has chosen to identify important concepts and generalizations from the various social sciences and has tried to provide for a sequential development of them in the K-12 curriculum. The eleventh grade course is interdisciplinary. It draws upon the concepts and generalizations from all of the disciplines. Since the course follows other courses which have focused largely upon individual disciplines, pupils should draw upon the concepts and generalizations learned in earlier courses as they examine the different areas of the world. Indeed, one reason for the course is to have pupils test generalizations learned while studying the United States with data from other cultures to see if the generalizations are culture-bound and should be limited. Most of the concepts and generalizations have been taught in earlier courses. Those which are reviewed from earlier courses and/or tested again in this one are marked with stars in the sequential charts on concepts and generalizations.

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Although this course is interdisciplinary, the concepts can be grouped in such a way that each group constitutes one possible structure for one of the disciplines. The staff's point of view about structure in disciplines is explained in background papers #'s 1 and 2. For further analysis of each of the disciplines, the teacher is referred to the background papers on the different disciplines.

Most of the generalizations to be developed are presented in terms of the social scientist. No attempt should be made to have pupils learn the statements as they are stated in the resource units. Rather, pupils should be encouraged to generalize in their own words.

## The Rationale for the Number of Objectives

These resource units differ from many units in part because of the large number of generalizations and skills to be taught. The teacher should remember that many of these generalizations and skills are found in a number of the units in the eleventh grade course. The sequential pattern from one unit to the next can be seen in the charts at the end of this guide. Moreover, many of the objectives are reviewed from earlier grades and almost all will be taught through different content in later grades. This means that it is not necessary or wise to spend too much time clinching a single generalization in any one unit. Rather, children should generalize and hold these generalizations as tentative--as hypotheses to be tested more fully as they study other units. At the end of the course, for example, they can generalize more fully about factors causing change or persistence of cultural traits than they can in the first unit. However, pupils should still understand that generalizations may need to be modified later, that they should be held tentatively, always subject to change in the light of new evidence.

Because of this reinforcement and further development of concepts, generalizations, and skills, it is important for the teacher to read through the objectives of all of the units before he begins the course. It would be wise, also, to examine the objectives of earlier courses. The charts on goals, which are found at the end of this guide, are keyed to show which ones were taught in earlier grades. The overall chart in Background Paper #1 indicates at what levels each concept, generalization, skill, or attitudinal behavior appears.

## TEACHING STRATEGIES

This course relies heavily upon an inquiry approach to teaching. For a more complete discussion of inquiry strategies in teaching the teacher should read a number of the background papers. Background Paper #1 analyzes in more detail the Center's point of view about inquiry as a teaching strategy and what inquiry involves. Background Paper #13 examines learning theory in relation to the use of inquiry. Background papers on the individual disciplines focus upon inquiry methods and techniques used in those disciplines, not upon inquiry approaches to teaching. However, they discuss inquiry techniques which might be taught to pupils in some of the courses.

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The eleventh grade course emphasizes a teaching strategy which encourages pupils to find out things for themselves rather than one which emphasizes the absorption of generalizations presented ready-made by the teacher or a book. Pupils are asked to set up hypotheses by drawing upon previously-learned concepts and generalizations. They decide that some idea they have learned in the past might help them make sense out of this new situation. They cannot be sure, but they think that this might be so. Inquiry also involves gathering data, evaluating sources, testing their hypotheses, and generalizing from their findings.

The Center's staff does not believe, nor does this course reflect a belief, that all learning must be developed by this type of teaching strategy. Some skill goals call for having pupils learn to use certain kinds of references or evaluate sources of information. Such goals cannot be met unless pupils use a wide variety of materials which present different points of view. Moreover, pupils may need to read materials which include opinions in order to gather data to test their hypotheses. Some accounts suggested in the units are included to help pupils find out how people who are affected by a problem or event feel about that problem or event. The fiction, biography, or firsthand accounts give pupils a chance to identify with the people in the books and so to understand their feelings as well as their cultural values and perceptions. Even when pupils read other people's accounts of topics, they should be evaluating the ideas against other data, discriminating between normative and non-normative statements, identifying basic assumptions, trying to assess the bias and competency of the author, and using the data they find to either stimulate new hypotheses for testing or to test earlier hypotheses.

At times the teacher may wish to use an informal lecture to present certain facts, but he can then ask questions to help pupils arrive at their own generalizations from these facts. Indeed, he can intersperse questions and discussion with his presentation. The purpose of such an informal lecture is to give pupils the raw data from which they can develop concepts and generalizations--information which perhaps is difficult for them to find elsewhere or to read for themselves or which can be presented more quickly in this fashion. The informal lecture should seldom present ready-made generalizations. At times the teacher may use an informal lecture to present the main points of a theory which pupils are then to analyze in terms of basic assumptions or to check against data. The teacher can present the theory in simpler terms than it can be found in reading materials. He can also leave out the evidence provided by the author of the theory to substantiate it if the teacher's purpose is to have pupils test the theory against data. Although pupils should develop many of their own hypotheses for testing, they should also have the experience of testing social science theories which have gained considerable attention. Such a lecture differs from the well-organized lecture which begins with a thesis and then develops it.*

Clearly, the achievement of varied goals requires varied teaching strategies. The strategy used in each instance, however, should be appropriate to the specific objectives to be developed.

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* For several different types of informal lectures, see the history sub-unit on the U.S.S.R., pp
and the unit on India, p. 38-40.

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worthwhile at some stages of thinking as are statements which present a commentary on facts found in books, articles, or films. At other times pupils should be asked to look for things which can be used to test their hypotheses. They should learn that an untested opinion of a non-normative nature is not as good as a tested opinion or generalization. Even at this stage, however, pupils should be rewarded for coming up with new ideas about possible hypotheses or for asking relevant questions which have not been raised earlier. Whether or not pupils will learn to ask questions, set up hypotheses, and generalize for themselves, depends in part upon whether or not such behavior is discouraged or encouraged by teachers. However, the teacher should not always say "yes," "right," or "good" when a pupil presents an idea which the teacher considers good. Rather, the teacher may wish to suggest that it is a new or interesting idea and ask for other ideas from the class. Then pupils can test different ideas. Teachers can reward or encourage the kinds of behavior desired in many ways other than by saying that the pupil has come up with a "correct" answer.

Some teachers worry about having pupils read different materials. They may believe that all pupils should have read something in common as a basis for discussions and for tests. Although all pupils may be reading different accounts, they can read materials focused upon the same questions. Pupils can be evaluated on the basis of what they learn from class discussions or from various kinds of reports as well as upon what they read. By testing for concepts, generalizations, and skills, rather than the specifics within any piece of writing, the teacher can avoid penalizing any pupil who has

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ifferent types of informal lectures, see the history sub-unit on the U.S.S.R., pp.164 ff.
n India, p. 38-40.

read something different and can make it clear to the pupils that he is in earnest when he says that he is more concerned about important ideas than about details. In some tests the teacher may ask each pupil to evaluate one of the accounts which he has read.

Providing different accounts for different students makes provision for varied reading levels and interests; it also makes it possible to work toward the development of evaluation skills as well as to gather more data than that found in one account. Discussions based on a wide reading program frequently encourage greater participation by the less able reader who knows that other students have not read his book. He is the authority on this particular book. Many of the accounts which are suggested for the wide reading program should also stimulate far greater interest than the typical text account.

## THE FOCUS OF THE ELEVENTH GRADE COURSE

This course focuses upon area studies. It uses all of the social science disciplines to analyze the culture and problems of four selected areas: Western Europe, the U.S.S.R., China, and India. The reason for the choice of these particular areas is noted below under the general outline of the course. The relationship of these area studies to other area studies and other parts of the curriculum is examined later. Here it should be noted, that there is no attempt to cover many areas; rather, each area is covered in some depth. An attempt is made to help pupils understand how different
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Emphasis is placed upon developing transferable concepts and generalizations which can be used when studying other places. However, the area studies were also chosen because they deal with important parts of the world--countries which pupils need to know about if they are to understand the modern world and analyze the problems facing our country in world affairs. Therefore, pupils are expected to learn many important ideas about each of the areas chosen. These ideas are listed in the outline of content, however, rather than in the list of objectives which presents only transferable generalizations.

The units are organized so that they can be taught as problem-centered units. Each unit begins with an introduction which attempts to help pupils understand the importance of the area and some of the policy conflicts or problems faced by the United States in dealing with the area. Pupils suggest or look briefly at policy alternatives and then study each area in some depth in order to gain the background needed to help them make tentative choices about foreign policy alternatives. Each unit includes some geographic study, an examination of historical developments which are important to understanding the area, and a study of the political, economic, and social systems in the area today. The last part of each unit focuses upon the relations of the area with other parts of the world and particularly with the United States. Pupils return to an analysis of policy alternatives facing the United States in its relations with the area.

The course emphasizes cultural values which give unity to the social system, cultural change, and cultural continuity. In each of the area studies the historical section includes a look at the total culture of the people in some past period prior to important changes. Pupils then look at some of the changes in a semi-chronological or a topical manner. They examine the total culture once more after these changes have taken place prior to another important change. For example, pupils look at the total culture of Russia in the early 1800's, then examine some of the important changes of the 19th century, and look at the culture once more prior to the revolutions of the 20th century. When they study China, they look at China around 1700 prior to the period of Western imperialism. They then examine Western imperialism and developments which led to the rise of nationalism. They look at China in more detail again prior to the Communist Revolution in the 1940's. A similar type of approach is used in the other area studies. This organization, which is borrowed from Ethel Ewing's area study approach, should help pupils understand the integration of culture and factors promoting cultural change or persistence of culture traits.

Although each of the units follows somewhat the same pattern of organization, there are important variations. For example, the approach to the study of geography in each area differs somewhat. In the unit on Western Europe, this section focuses upon regionalization and criteria which might be used in separating Western Europe from other parts of the world as well as in regionalizing Western Europe itself.
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The section on geography in the U.S.S.R. begins by having pupils study a physical map and set up hypotheses about other physical features and human activities in the U.S.S.R. They check these hypotheses against other maps and data, develop new hypotheses about other features, and check those against various kinds of data. In this process, pupils apply many of the concepts, generalizations, and skills developed in earlier grades and in unit one.

The geography section of the unit on China also calls for having pupils apply previous knowledge in setting up hypotheses about China. This time, however, they begin with a different kind of map pattern and spend more time dealing with population problems.

In the unit on India, pupils learn in the introduction about the low living levels and compare the levels of living in India with those in China. They are then asked to do independent study to try to decide whether or not India has the geographic potential for as rapid economic growth as does China.

Each unit emphasizes the idea that man uses his environment in terms of his cultural values, perceptions, and level of technology. In the geographic section and in each of the other sections of the area units, pupils apply and test generalizations as they study each new area of the world.

## GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

The course includes the following units:

Unit 1: Western Europe (approximately 12 weeks)

Western Europe is taught as an area study, not in chronological fashion as in many area study programs. It was selected for study because of its importance to the United States and to the world as a whole. Ordinarily, it should be taught at the beginning of the year, since a number of developments in other parts of the world are related to it in the other units. However, a teacher could shift the order of the units and begin with a different one if it were prominent in the world news because of some crisis situation. Moreover, it might be wise to begin with the U.S.S.R. the first year in which someone teaches an area study after having taught world history in the past. It is easier to adjust to an area study approach to content if one begins by teaching an area not treated chronologically in the past.

Not all of Western Europe can be studied in detail in one area study. Therefore, the focus is upon Britain, France, and Germany, although other parts of Western Europe are introduced at various points in the unit. The teacher is referred to the introduction to the history sub-unit for an analysis of the chief features of the organization of that section of the unit. The sub-unit dealing with the social, political, and economic systems of the three countries calls for much comparison among them and uses ideal types to help pupils make such comparisons.

The last part of the unit on fore
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Unit 2: The U.S.S.R. (approxima
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The last part of the unit on foreign relations looks at attempts to bring about closer economic and political relationships among the countries of Western Europe. This is the place in the curriculum when pupils study concepts needed to understand international trade. Pupils also examine the problems raised for the United States in some of these developments as well as other policy conflicts facing this country in relationship to Western Europe.

Unit 2: The U.S.S.R. (approximately 11 or 12 weeks)

The U.S.S.R. was chosen because of its importance in the world and because it was the first great communist power. The section on geography helps develop some idea of the potential of the area for industrial and agricultural growth.

The section on history helps pupils understand aspects of cultural continuity between Tsarist Russia and the Soviet Union. This section includes a fairly lengthly section on Marxian ideas which could have been developed when studying the history of Western Europe but which seem to fit more naturally into this area study.

The political, economic, and social systems are studied in one sub-unit in order to help pupils understand the relationships among them and the extent to which the government influences all aspects of life. Pupils should understand that the system is not static and that to label countries totalitarian or democratic really involves the use of ideal types, similar to the ideal types used for social systems in unit one and economic systems in earlier grades. They should try to decide where they would place the U.S.S.R. and the U.S. today in terms of a continuum from democracy to totalitarianism.

The last sub-unit on foreign policy treats the relations of the U.S.S.R. with other countries and introduces its split with the Chinese Communists. Pupils try to analyze alternative courses of action for U.S. foreign policy in terms of what they have learned about the Soviet Union.

## Unit 3: China (approximately 7 or 8 weeks)

China was chosen because of its importance in world affairs, because it is the second most important communist country in the world--and perhaps the most dangerous one to world peace, and because it represents an important Asiatic culture. Pupils are able to compare the different policies followed by communists in China and in the Soviet Union. They also can examine our policies toward China in the light of the split between these two communist powers and the knowledge they have gained about China as a whole.

At the end of their study of the social, political, and economic systems in China, pupils should compare China with the U.S.S.R. and with other countries they have studied so far. They might try to place China on one continuum showing political systems, another showing social systems, and another showing economic systems as they make these comparisons.

## Unit 4: India (approximately 4½ we

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Unit 4: India (approximately 4½ weeks)

India was chosen because it is an Aseatic culture and important in world affairs. It is a large country which began its independence at just about the same level of living as that found in China when China turned communist. It is faced with similar kinds of population pressures and social and economic problems, but is trying to solve these problems through democratic means and a mixed market-command economy. Pupils should make comparisons between India and China and also between India and Western Europe in terms of the economic, political, and social systems.

The unit on India is used as a vehicle to develop a number of anthropological concepts related to the cultural problems of introducing technological change into a society. The unit also calls for testing a theory of economic growth studied in the tenth grade course on American history as well as a theory about which factors lead to revolutionary and which to reform movements.

Culminating Section (approximately one-half week)

At the end of the year pupils should compare the different areas of the world in more detail and should examine and refine generalizations which they developed in the early units.

## THE PLACE OF THE COURSE IN THE OVERALL CURRICULUM

It is important for teachers to understand how this course fits into the rest of the Center's curricular framework. If pupils have come through the Center's courses for the elementary school, they will have developed considerable understanding of the culture concepts, including an understanding of how cultural values affect other aspects of the total social system, including the economic and political systems.

In the fourth grade course, pupils will have looked at a village in India and at a rural and an urban community in the Soviet Union as they studied, at an elementary level, comparative economic systems. This course, which develops a number of economic concepts, includes the contrasting systems to emphasize the relationship of the economic system to cultural values and the social and political systems.

The eleventh grade course is not the only one to introduce pupils to other areas of the world. Pupils will have studied the geography of the U.S., Canada, and Latin America in grade five. In earlier courses, they will have studied some geography in connection with their units on families and communities around the world. For example, as they studied families around the world in grades one and two, they will have found out something about Japan, some of the people in Peru, the Hausa of Nigeria, Soviet life in Moscow, and a Kibbutz community in Israel. In grade three they will have studied life in Paris as well as life in one of the South Pacific Islands. In grade four they will have studied geography in relationship to the U.S.S.R., India, and the Trobriand Islands.
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eography in relationship to the U.S.S.R.,
India, and the Trobriand Islands. Moreover, in either grade eight or nine, pupils will have studied an area study on the Middle East. In the twelfth grade course, pupils will encounter an area study on Africa South of the Sahara and will look briefly at a number of countries particularly in Latin America and Southeast Asia in the unit on Underdeveloped Countries. Moreover, the case study on Viet Nam in the unit on War and Peace includes some geographic study of Southeast Asia. Almost all of the important areas of the world, with the exception of Australia, are included in some place within the curriculum.

The eleventh grade course is built upon a junior high sequence in the behavioral sciences. Pupils study sociology and some anthropology in grade seven in a course on Man and Society. They study the American political system in grade eight. And they study economics, with an emphasis upon the American economic system in grade nine. The Middle East study in grade eight or nine will have continued to develop concepts in anthropology and sociology, economics, and political science. The study of the American social, political, and economic system is developed in greater time depth in the U.S. history course in grade ten. Therefore, pupils in the eleventh grade course in area studies should have learned a large proportion of the concepts and generalizations needed to analyze other social, economic, and political systems. They can test and refine these generalizations against data from other cultures. Economic concepts and generalizations are also taught in several of the twelfth grade units.

Pupils will have a chance to expand their knowledge of factors affecting technological, economic, and social change when they study both Africa and the unit on Underdeveloped Countries in the twelfth grade course. They will look at the issue of security and freedom in the United States at that level also, and can compare the way in which this issue is handled in this country with the way in which it is handled in the areas studied in the eleventh grade course.

This eleventh grade course includes much of the content on American foreign policy which is usually taught in American history courses. For example, the tenth grade course does not deal with twentieth century foreign policy matters, with the World Wars or with the Korean War. These wars are taught in connection with the history section of the area study on Western Europe. Foreign relations with each of the areas studied is treated at some length in each of the units. Nor is the eleventh grade course the final course in which pupils will study questions related to American foreign policy and war and peace. In the twelfth grade, they will study U.S. relations with Africa, a long unit on War and Peace, and questions related to foreign aid. Pupils study U.S. relations with the Middle East in the junior high school and our relations with Cuba in the eighth grade unit on the executive system.

### THE FORMAT OF THE RESOURCE UNITS

The main part of each resource unit is set up in a double-page format to help teachers see the relationships among objectives, content, teaching procedures, and materials of instruction. The objectives are found in the first column on the left-hand page. This column answers the questions: Why should we use this procedure or teach this conte
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the left-hand page presents an outline
This column answers the question: Wha
we teach? The first column on the rig
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and this content? The final column on
of instruction answers the question:
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A key is used in the objectives colum
type of objective stand out clearly.
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If no objective is found in the left-h
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use this procedure or teach this content? What should be the focus of the procedure? The second column on the left-hand page presents an outline of content. This column answers the question: What topics should we teach? The first column on the right-hand page includes suggested teaching procedures. This column answers the question: How can we teach these objectives and this content? The final column on materials of instruction answers the question: With what materials can we teach these objectives and this content?

A key is used in the objectives column to make the type of objective stand out clearly. Generalizations are preceded by a G and are in plain type. Skills are preceded by an S and are underlined. Attitudinal behaviors are preceded by an A and are in capital letters.

If no objective is found in the left-hand column for a particular procedure, the teacher should look at the last objective (s) listed in the column for a single procedure. An objective is not repeated until a different objective intervenes.

The generalizations are presented in the words of the social scientist. Teachers should not attempt to have pupils memorize the generalizations as they are stated. Rather, pupils should be encouraged to generalize in their own words.

It should be noted that any one teaching procedure may help develop several generalizations, one or more skills, and one or more attitudes. Indeed, the most useful procedures are frequently those which help achieve several types of objectives.

By knowing what generalization (s) are listed for a particular procedure, the teacher can direct his handling of the procedure to appropriate ends. As stated earlier, however, he should not feel that pupils should learn a generalization as the result of this one procedure. The procedure should help lead to the development of the generalization but is almost never the only procedure aimed at accomplishing this end, even within the same unit.

If nothing is printed in the content column opposite a particular procedure, the teacher should look at the last content presented for an earlier procedure. It is not repeated for each new procedure.

The materials column does not include complete bibliographic data nor all of the references which might be used. The bibliographic data can be found in the bibliography at the end of the main body of the unit. The bibliography frequently includes other books and materials which may be used in the unit but which are not so necessary as those listed in the body of the unit. Teachers are encouraged to add other materials as they are published or suitable materials which are in their school libraries but which are not listed in the bibliography.

ADAPTING RESOURCE UNITS TO SPECIFIC COURSES

The units provided by the Center are resource units. Naturally, teachers are expected and encouraged to add their own ideas for materials and teaching procedures. These units are intended to suggest possibilities, not to present a cut-and-dried course.

Since these units are resource units
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## RCE UNITS TO SPECIFIC COURSES

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ut-and-dried course.

Since these units are resource units, teachers are not expected to use all of the suggested procedures. Indeed, they could not do so in any one class. Rather a teacher should select and add procedures which are most suitable for each class. He should consider a number of factors as he makes his selection.

1. The objectives which he wishes to emphasize in the unit.

   Suppose the teacher discovers that pupils need more help on certain skills such as evaluating sources of information in terms of bias and competency of authors. He can build more exercises to develop this skill and omit some of the activities designed to achieve different objectives. On the other hand, he may discover that his pupils have developed considerable competency in this skill, and he may omit some of the procedures in the last unit designed to teach the skill. (However, he should probably use some of them so that pupils will see the transfer value of the skill and can use it to help come to some conclusions about the area studied.)

2. The general ability level of the class.

   For example, in a class with largely low-ability pupils, the teacher may wish to omit the testing of the Smelser theory related to reform and revolutionary movements in the unit on India. He may wish to reduce the amount of time spent on some of the historical material in all of the units. He may need to omit some activities based on the more difficult reading materials, and he may wish to use more audio-visual materials.

3. The different abilities and interests of class members.

This criterion is particularly important in selecting individual and small group activities and reading materials.

4. Previous experiences of pupils in the class.

The selection of objectives, content, procedures, and materials will depend in part upon: (a) previous experiences outside of school, including those resulting from pupils' socio-economic background and their work and travel experiences; and (b) earlier school experiences, including whether or not pupils have come through earlier courses in the Center's curriculum.

If pupils have not studied the junior high school courses, for example, the teacher will need to spend much more time developing some of the concepts and generalizations needed to analyze the political, economic, and social systems of the area being studied. If pupils have not studied the unit on the Middle East or some geography unit or course in the junior high school, the teacher will need to spend more time developing geographic concepts, generalizations, and skills. Indeed, the time needed to teach these units may be expanded enough so that it would be wise to omit the final unit on India.

It will make a difference, too, if some pupils have had the earlier Project courses and others have not. Procedures will have to be included to help those who have not had the other courses build the needed background while the rest of the class studies new materials.

5. The rest of the school curricu
studies and in other fields.

The teacher will need to consi
as the following:

(a) Will pupils study the twel
this Center's curriculum?
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(b) What are pupils studying i
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Russian literature in Engl

(c) Does the school have a com
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5. The rest of the school curriculum, both in social studies and in other fields.

The teacher will need to consider questions such as the following:

(a) Will pupils study the twelfth grade course in this Center's curriculum? If not, the teacher might wish to substitute the area study on Africa South of the Sahara for the unit on India. Or he might want to reduce the time spent on the other units or omit the unit on India to make room for the twelfth grade unit on War and Peace. If pupils have studied a traditional U.S. history course, including a heavy emphasis upon foreign policy, the teacher might reduce the time spent on foreign relations with the U.S. in each of the area studies. Moreover, he might only mention the world wars and then focus upon their effects in the history section on Western Europe.

(b) What are pupils studying in their English classes, if anything, about world literature which might be related to the areas studied or about communication skills? It might be possibe to correlate some of the work in the two classes. For example, pupils might prepare papers in which they would get help in social studies on content and in English classes on writing skills. Or during the unit on the Soviet Union, students might read Russian literature in English classes.

(c) Does the school have a computer hookup for use in math classes which would enable pupils taking math to develop computer programs to help solve some of the problems they encounter in the area studies. For example, pupils have developed a computer program to help predict population growth in China, given different sets of assumptions.

6. Materials available for the course.

Some procedures will have to be omitted or modified if certain materials are not available or if other materials cannot be substituted. Certain suggestions for modifications have been made for the unit on the Soviet Union where some of the most useful materials are now out of print. These out-of-print books should be used if they are available in the local or school library, and so they are included in the bibliography. The teacher should attempt to obtain some of them through second-hand book stores, and he should watch for re-issues in paperback form. The bibliographies for this course are extensive. The teacher should examine his library to find out what is available, and should then order the other books which are most crucial, planning to add to the library and classroom facilities each year. The teacher should also be on the lookout for new books presenting varied viewpoints about the areas studied. He should also begin to build a file of magazine clippings which have reference to current aspects of the topics taught in the course.
It is important when purchasing books to provide books presenting varied points of view, particularly on the modern situation in each of these areas. Otherwise, it will be difficult to develop skills of critical evaluation of materials or to have pupils arrive at their own generalizations about these areas. Presenting books and articles with only one viewpoint would predetermine their findings and run counter to
the attempt to have pupils inve
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7. Current Affairs

Some of the suggested procedure
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These events should be used to
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the attempt to have pupils investigate the situation themselves and draw their own conclusions.

7. Current Affairs

Some of the suggested procedures may be dropped or modified and others added to take advantage of current affairs. Unhappily, serious problems related to these units occur almost every year. These events should be used to stimulate interest in the units and to provide leads to the study of specific topics within each unit. Particularly important crises might make it wise to shift the order of units to take advantage of current interest.

8. Factors in the community which might affect how the teacher can handle certain controversial issues or the kinds of resource people available.

9. The need for variety in procedures from one unit to the next, from one day to the next, and within any class hour.

As teachers adapt and add to units, they should keep in mind certain things about how the course has been developed. First, there is a flow to each unit. Certain things are placed first and other things later because of the need to develop certain concepts or present certain data before other ideas are presented. Before the order of procedures or content is shifted, the teacher needs to analyze the concepts and data needed to teach each procedure in order to decide whether the shift is wise or, if it is made, what else needs to be shifted in order to provide the background needed for carrying out the procedure. Whatever the teacher does, he should develop a logical flow. A jumbled order which has no logical progression may interfere with the pupils' organization and development of ideas. Moreover, if many topics are treated superficially at one point early in the unit and then treated again later, pupils' interest needed to motivate their study may be blunted. By all means, the flow of the units should not be determined just by who happens to be ready with a report or panel discussion first. Nor is it wise to set up a series of reports to be presented one after another, with no variation in procedure or without any attempt to fit them into their proper place in the schedule of other procedures for developing topics.

The teacher will need, of course, to adapt the teaching unit from day to day to make sure that he provides a variety of procedures within each day's lesson. Except in unusual classes, 11th grade pupils should not be expected to maintain a high interest level if they are asked to do the same thing for the entire class period. Although the resource units have been written to provide a variety within the present order of procedures, the main responsibility for providing this variety must lie with the teacher. Since he will not use all of the procedures suggested in the resource units, and since he will add others, he could end up with little variety from day to day or within one class hour. Moreover, he will get behind in his plans or shift his plans somewhat from day to day depending upon what happens in class. This does not mean that he must make marked changes in the flow of procedures. It does mean that even a teaching unit must be adjusted from day to day. Few teachers, if they are flexible enough to take into account pupils' questions and interests,

can build lesson plans for even on
making adjustments from one day to
plans will fit into the overall un
cannot be developed ahead of time
lesson plans to be followed day af
sequently, small adjustments in th
cedures may have to be made each d
provide variety in the lesson.

The teacher must keep in mind othe
he decides which procedures to omi
procedures to add. First, has he
some procedures to teach each of
has decided to try to achieve? I
others to achieve these ends? Sec
procedures to teach all of the con
If not, does he think this content
If so, he must think of other ways
At the present time there are a nu
to teach most of the objectives an
to teach some of the same content.
also be cut if all of the procedur
teach it are omitted. This statem
evident. However, sometimes teach
come to a certain point in a unit,
to teach content they think import
easiest thing at the last moment--
it. An informal lecture may be us
this guide makes clear on page f
other procedures might be better o
self might be cut in some classes.

As the teacher shifts activities a
also remember that each procedure
accomplish certain objectives. If
activity is shifted to a later poi
probably needs modifying to provid

needed for carrying out the pro-
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gression may interfere with the pupils'
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from day to day depending upon what
ss. This does not mean that he must
anges in the flow of procedures. It does
a teaching unit must be adjusted from
ew teachers, if they are flexible enough
ccount pupils' questions and interests,
can build lesson plans for even one week without making adjustments from one day to the next. These plans will fit into the overall unit, but the unit cannot be developed ahead of time merely as a set of lesson plans to be followed day after day. Consequently, small adjustments in the order of procedures may have to be made each day in order to provide variety in the lesson.

The teacher must keep in mind other questions as he decides which procedures to omit or which new procedures to add. First, has he kept at least some procedures to teach each of the objectives he has decided to try to achieve? If not, can he add others to achieve these ends? Second, has he kept procedures to teach all of the content suggested? If not, does he think this content should be taught? If so, he must think of other ways of presenting it. At the present time there are a number of suggestions to teach most of the objectives and even a number to teach some of the same content. The content must also be cut if all of the procedures designed to teach it are omitted. This statement seems self-evident. However, sometimes teachers suddenly come to a certain point in a unit, with no plans to teach content they think important. They do the easiest thing at the last moment--lecture to cover it. An informal lecture may be used at times, as this guide makes clear on page four ; however; other procedures might be better or the content itself might be cut in some classes.

As the teacher shifts activities around he should also remember that each procedure is written to accomplish certain objectives. If an initiatory activity is shifted to a later point in a unit, it probably needs modifying to provide for greater analysis than is called for in a procedure designed to explore pupils' existing knowledge, skills, and attitudes, arouse their interest, relate the unit topic to previously-studied material or to develop an overview for the unit. Similarly, if later procedures are shifted to the introductory stage, they will need modification. Use of a film to introduce a unit will differ from its use during the developmental stage of a unit which will in turn differ from its use during a culminating stage. Its introductory use might be designed to raise questions, present conflicting points of view, or provide an overview for the unit. During the development stage, it might be used to provide data for thorough analysis of a specific topic or to help teach a skill or develop an attitude. During a culminating stage it might be used as a summary or even as a test device in which pupils are called upon to suggest limitations of the data or to compare its presentation with what they have already learned in the unit. Usually, the same film is not equally useful for all three purposes; however, some films could be used at any stage if the teacher adapts the procedure to the purpose.

These resource units are already voluminous. It is impossible to suggest all of the ways in which one procedure might be varied or one material might be used. Naturally, pupils could prepare written reports rather than oral reports on certain topics. Or an oral report could be turned into a symposium, a panel discussion, or role-playing. Or pupils might present the same material through charts or bulletin board displays, through mock newspapers, through dittoed written reports, etc. The decision on which form to use may depend upon the teacher's assessment of how important it is for the entire class to obtain the information, upon the extent to which he has relied upon oral reports in the last unit, and upon his ass
relative effectiveness of using o
particular class. Of course writ
other types of written materials
class use,and charts and bulletin
can be studied by the entire class
teacher must decide whether or no
suggested for an oral presentatio
the entire class or crucial to th
decides whether or not and in wha
the suggested procedure.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THESE MATERIAL

The Curriculum Center at the Univ
has as its major goal the develop
a new curricular framework for gr
basic assumptions of the staff an
selecting topics are discussed in
ground Paper #1. A tentative cur
used in developing a series of re
sample pupil materials at various
they were needed. No attempt was
a complete set of materials for p
the aim was to try out the curric
many materials available from oth
possible, supplementing these
a few developed by the Center onl
needed in order to teach the unit
date, members of the staff may wo
and audio-visual producers to dev
sets of materials. However, tryo
has shown that the eleventh grade
taught with materials currently a

called for in a procedure designed
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se their interest, relate the unit
sly-studied material or to develop
the unit. Similarly, if later pro-
ted to the introductory stage, they
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er from its use during the develop-
a unit which will in turn differ
ing a culminating stage. Its in-
ight be designed to raise questions,
ing points of view, or provide an over-
t. During the development stage, it
provide data for thorough analysis
pic or to help teach a skill or de-
le. During a culminating stage it
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ock newspapers, through dittoed written
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teacher's assessment of how important
tire class to obtain the information,
to which he has relied upon oral reports
in the last unit, and upon his assessment of the relative effectiveness of using oral reports in a particular class. Of course written reports or other types of written materials can be dittoed for class use,and charts and bulletin board materials can be studied by the entire class. However, the teacher must decide whether or not the topic suggested for an oral presentation is important for the entire class or crucial to the unit before he decides whether or not and in what ways to modify the suggested procedure.

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THESE MATERIALS

The Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota has as its major goal the development and try-out of a new curricular framework for grades K-12. The basic assumptions of the staff and the criteria for selecting topics are discussed in the Center's Background Paper #1. A tentative curricular framework was used in developing a series of resource units and sample pupil materials at various levels where they were needed. No attempt was made to develop a complete set of materials for pupils. Rather, the aim was to try out the curriculum, using as many materials available from other sources as possible, supplementing these materials with a few developed by the Center only where they were needed in order to teach the units. At some future date, members of the staff may work with publishers and audio-visual producers to develop more complete sets of materials. However, tryout of these materials has shown that the eleventh grade course can be taught with materials currently available.

| OF SKILLS | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ATTACKS PROBLEMS IN A RATIONAL MANNER | | | | | |
| *1. Identifies and defines problems | | | X | X | |
| *a. Identifies value conflicts | X | | X | X | |
| *2. Sets up hypotheses | X | X | X | X | |
| *a. Sets up hypotheses by applying previously-learned concepts and generalizations. | | | X | | |
| *3. Sets up ways of testing hypotheses | X | | X | | |
| *a. Deduces possible consequences from hypotheses (if-then statements) to guide collection of data. | | X | | | |
| 4. Considers the relevance of each of the social science disciplines, and uses the types of questions asked and analytical concepts used in the relevant disciplines to help him analyze the problem. | X | X | X | X | |
| *5. Considers alternative courses of action. | | X | X | X | |
| LOCATES INFORMATION EFFICIENTLY | | | | | |
| *1. Uses appropriate reference books to locate information | | X | | | |
| *a. Uses almanacs and encyclopedias | | | | X | |
| *b. Uses Reader's Guide to locate information | X | | X | X | |
| c. Uses Statemen's Yearbook | X | | | | |
| d. Uses references to locate information about living authors. | | X | | | |
| *2. Locates information by using the index in books | | | | X | |
| GATHERS INFORMATION EFFECTIVELY | | | | | |
| *1. Adjusts reading rate to purpose in reading | | X | | | |
| *2. Reads for the main ideas | X | | X | X | |
| *3. Reads for details | X | | | | |
| *4. Interprets tables, graphs, and charts. | Tab.& Gra. | Graphs | Tab.&Gra. | | |
| *a. Draws inferences from tables, graphs,and charts | X | X | X | X | |
| b. Looks for graphic devices which may be misleading | | X | | | |
| *5. Interprets cartoons | X | X | X | | |
| *6. Listens for details | X | | | | |
| *7. Listens for main ideas | X | | | | |

*Introduced in earlier course.

# Taught but not stated as objective.

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| EVALUATES INFORMATION AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION | | | | | |
| *1. Checks on the accuracy of information. | X | X | | | |
| *a. Checks facts against his own background of information and collects additional information when he needs it to check the facts. | | X | | | |
| *b. Checks on the bias and competency of witnesses, authors, and producers of materials. | X | X | X | X | |
| *1) Differentiates between primary sources and secondary accounts | X | | | | |
| *c. Compares sources of information | X | | | | |
| *1) Looks for points of agreement and disagreement among witnesses and authors and other sources of information. | X | X | X | X | |
| *d. Identifies and examines assumptions to decide whether or not he can accept them. | X | X | X | X | |
| *1) Identifies cultural assumptions | X | | | | |
| *e. Recognizes differences in difficulty of proving statements. | | X | | X | |
| *1) Differentiates between facts and estimates | X | | | | |
| *2) Differentiates between facts, inferences and value judgements | | X | | X | |
| *2. Checks on the completeness of data and is wary of generalizations based on insufficient evidence | X | X | X | X | |
| *a. Rejects post-hoc arguments; looks for another factor which may have caused the later event | X | X | X | | |
| *b. Rejects assumption of cause-effect relationship in correlations; looks for another factor which may have caused both parts of a correlation. | X | | X | | |
| *c. Rejects whole-part falacies | | | X | | |
| *d. Identifies card stacking | X | X | | | |
| *e. Examines sample used in study to see if it is representative of the population for which generalizations are being made. | X | X | | | |
| *f. Looks for causative factors other than those mentioned in source of information. | X | | | | |
| *3. Detects inconsistencies | X | X | X | | |
| *4. Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant information | | X | | | |
| *a. Identifies persuasiion devices | X | X | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | Ind |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| USES EFFECTIVE GEOGRAPHIC SKILLS | | | | |
| *1. Has a sense of distance and area | | X | | |
| *a. Compares distances with known distances | | X | | |
| *b. Compares areas with known areas | | X | X | X |
| *2. Uses the atlas index to locate places | | | | X |
| *3. Interprets maps | | | | |
| *a. Differentiates between small-scale and large-scale maps and knows when to use each | X | | | |
| *b. Identifies distortions on maps | | X | | |
| *1) Compares map grid with globe grid to detect distortions on maps | | X | | |
| 2) Selects the appropriate type of map projection (or globe) for a specific purpose | | X | | |
| c. Uses the map or globe to estimate distances north and south and to compare maps of different scale. | | X | | |
| d. Uses meridians to identify differences in time zones | | X | | |
| * e. Draws inferences from maps | X | | | |
| *1) Draws inferences from a comparison of different map patterns of the same area | X | # | X | X |
| * 4. Develops a system of regions to fit a particular purpose | X | | | |
| HAS A WELL-DEVELOPED TIME SENSE | | | | |
| * 1. Makes and interprets timelines | # | X | X | |
| * 2. Looks for relationships among events within one country and within a worldwide time framework | | X | X | X |
| * 3. Has a sense of the passage of time | | X | X | |
| a. Compares lengths of periods or events | | | X | |
| * 4. Sees meaningful differences between eras; notes relationship within any era between institutions and cultural assumptions | | X | | |
| ORGANIZES AND ANALYZES INFORMATION AND DRAWS CONCLUSIONS | | | | |
| * 1. Identifies differences in data | X | | | |
| * 2. Categorizes data | | | X | |
| * 3. Applies previously-learned concepts and generalizations to new data | X | X | X | X |
| * 4. Relates ideas to ideas acquired from other sources of information, and organizes own structure for topic | | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| EOGRAPHIC SKILLS | | | | | |
| f distance and area | | X | | | |
| istances with known distances | | X | | | |
| reas with known areas | | X | X | X | |
| s index to locate places | | | | X | |
| aps | | | | | |
| ates between small-scale and large-scale maps when to use each | X | | | | |
| distortions on maps | | X | | | |
| s map grid with globe grid to detect distor- n maps | | X | | | |
| the appropriate type of map projection (or for a specific purpose | | X | | | |
| ap or globe to estimate distances north and to compare maps of different scale. | | X | | | |
| ians to identify differences in time zones | | X | | | |
| rences from maps | X | | | | |
| nferences from a comparison of different map s of the same area | X | # | X | X | |
| stem of regions to fit a particular purpose | X | | | | |
| LOPED TIME SENSE | | | | | |
| terprets timelines | # | X | X | | |
| ationships among events within one country worldwide time framework | | X | X | X | |
| f the passage of time | | X | X | | |
| engths of periods or events | | | X | | |
| ul differences between eras; notes relation- ny era between institutions and cultural | | X | | | |
| NALYZES INFORMATION AND DRAWS CONCLUSIONS | | | | | |
| ifferences in data | X | | | | |
| ata | | | X | | |
| ously-learned concepts and generalizations to | X | X | X | X | |
| to ideas acquired from other sources of and organizes own structure for topic | | X | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *5. Studies data to see if he needs to gather more data before coming to conclusions | | X | | |
| *6. Tests hypotheses against data | X | X | X | X |
| 7. Uses ideal types in analyzing social systems | X | | | |
| *8. Generalizes from data | X | X | X | X |
| *9. Revises generalizations, if necessary, in the light of new data | | | X | X |
| *10. Considers possible consequences of alternative courses of action | | X | X | X |
| *a. Having examined the cause of a problem, scrutinizes possible consequences of alternative courses of action, evaluates them in the light of basic values, lists arguments for and against each proposal, and selects tentative courses of action which seem most likely to prove helpful in achieving desired goals. | | X | | |
| COMMUNICATES EFFECTIVELY WITH OTHERS | | X | | |
| *1. Presents effective symposia | | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| to see if he needs to gather more data before clusions | | X | | | |
| ses against data | X | X | X | X | |
| pes in analyzing social systems | X | | | | |
| rom data | X | X | X | X | |
| alizations, if necessary, in the light of new | | | X | X | |
| ssible consequences of alternative courses of | | X | X | X | |
| mined the cause of a problem, scrutinizes onsequences of alternative courses of action, them in the light of basic values, lists for and against each proposal, and selects courses of action which seem most likely to pful in achieving desired goals. | | X | | | |
| FECTIVELY WITH OTHERS | | X | | | |
| ective symposia | | X | | | |

| SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDINAL BEHAVIORS | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *1. Is curious about social data and wishes to read and study further in the social sciences. | X | X | X |
| *2. Is committed to the free examination of social attitudes and data. Searches actively for different points of view and interpretations. | X | X | X |
| *3. Is sceptical of the finality of knowledge; considers generalizations and theories as tentative, always subject to change in the light of new evidence. | X | X | X |
| *4. Is sceptical of conventional truths and demands that widely-held and popular notions be judged in accordance with standards of empirical validation. | X | X | |
| *5. Values objectivity and desires to keep his values from affecting his interpretation of evidence. | X | X | # |
| *a. Respects evidence even when it contradicts prejudices and preconceptions. | X | X | # |
| *6. Evaluates information and sources of information before accepting evidence and generalizations. | X | X | # |
| *7. Values the scientific method and rational thought as applied to social as well as to natural data. | X | X | |
| 8. Values knowledge for the sake of knowledge, as a means of helping men understand the world in which he lives. | | X | |
| *9. Believes that the social sciences can contribute to men's welfare by providing information and explanatory generalizations which help men achieve their goals. | X | X | |
| *10. Is sceptical of theories of single causation in the social sciences. | X | X | X |
| *11. Is sceptical of panaceas. | X | X | X |
| *12. Appreciates and respects the cultural contributions of other countries, races, and religions. | X | # | X |
| *13. Values change as a means of achieving goals but does not equate change with progress. | X | # | # |
| 14. Is patient with attempted reforms; looks at current situation from the perspective of the time needed for changes in the past. | X | | |
| *15. Believes in the possibilities of improving social conditions. | X | | |
| *16. Values human dignity. | X | # | # |

* Introduced in earlier courses.

# Taught but not stated as objective.

| ELOPMENT OF ATTITUDINAL BEHAVIORS | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| about social data and wishes to read and study the social sciences. | X | X | X | X | |
| d to the free examination of social attitudes earches actively for different points of view and ions. | X | X | X | X | X |
| l of the finality of knowledge; considers gener- and theories as tentative, always subject to he light of new evidence. | X | X | X | X | |
| l of conventional truths and demands that widely- pular notions be judged in accordance with f empirical validation. | X | X | | X | |
| ctivity and desires to keep his values from is interpretation of evidence. | X | X | # | X | |
| evidence even when it contradicts prejudices onceptions. | X | X | # | | |
| nformation and sources of information before vidence and generalizations. | X | X | # | X | |
| scientific method and rational thought as social as well as to natural data. | X | X | | | X |
| ledge for the sake of knowledge, as a means of understand the world in which he lives. | | X | | X | |
| at the social sciences can contribute to men's providing information and explanatory general- ich help men achieve their goals. | X | X | | X | X |
| l of theories of single causation in the social | X | X | X | X | X |
| l of panaceas. | X | X | X | X | X |
| and respects the cultural contributions of other races, and religions. | X | # | X | X | X |
| ge as a means of achieving goals but does not ge with progress. | X | # | # | | X |
| with attempted reforms; looks at current situa- he perspective of the time needed for changes in | X | | | | |
| the possibilities of improving social | X | | | | X |
| an dignity. | X | # | # | # | |

n earlier courses.

ot stated as objective.

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | Ind |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *17. Values institutions as a means of promoting human welfare, not because of tradition; is willing to change institutions as times create new problems. | X | | | |
| *18. Evaluates conditions, proposals, events, and programs on the basis of effects upon individuals as human beings. | | X | # | X |
| *19. Has a sense of responsibility for taking informed action about problems confronting the nation. | | X | | X |
| * 20. Feels a sense of responsibility for keeping informed about current problems. | X | X | X | |
| *21. Supports freedom of thought and expression. | X | X | X | |
| *22. Values procedural safeguards for those accused of crimes. | X | X | X | |
| *23. Desires to protect the rights of minorities. | X | X | # | |
| *24. Has a reasoned loyalty to the United States and desires to make it an ever-better place in which to live. | X | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| utions as a means of promoting human welfare, f tradition; is willing to change institutions te new problems. | X | | | | |
| ditions, proposals, events, and programs on the cts upon individuals as human beings. | | X | # | X | |
| f responsibility for taking informed action s confronting the nation. | | X | | X | |
| of responsibility for keeping informed about ems. | X | X | X | | X |
| dom of thought and expression. | X | X | X | | X |
| ural safeguards for those accused of crimes. | X | X | X | | |
| otect the rights of minorities. | X | X | # | | |
| d loyalty to the United States and desires to er-better place in which to live. | X | X | | | X |

| SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF GENERALIZATIONS | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| *1. Social scientists set up classifications to suit their purposes; the use of different criteria result in different classifications. | X | X | |
| *a. A region is an area of one or more homogeneous features. The core area is highly homogeneous, but there are transitional zones where boundaries are drawn between different regions. | (First sentence) | X | |
| # 1) A region is delimited by some degree of homogeneity of phenomena which sets it apart from other regions. | | | |
| *2) Regions are delimited on many different bases, depending upon the purpose of the study. Some are delimited on the basis of a single phenomenon, some on the basis of multiple phenomena, and some on the basis of functional relationships. | (First sentence) | X | |
| 2. Social scientists develop hypotheses to guide their investigations. | X | | |
| *3. A person's frame of reference affects his perceptions and interpretations. | X | | |
| a. A persons' frame of reference is affected by his total life experiences and affects his perceptions and interpretations. | X | | |
| *b. It is impossible to understand the meaning of a piece of writing without understanding the author's frame of reference and use of vocabulary. | X | | |
| *4. All maps contain distortions of one kind or another; each map projection has both advantages and disadvantages,depending upon one's purpose in using a map. | | X | |
| *5. Man uses his physical environment in terms of his cultural values, perceptions, and level of technology. | X | X | |
| *a. Whether or not a country's size provides more advantages or disadvantages depends upon the problems inhabitants face at a particular time, upon their goals, and upon their level of technology. | | X | |
| *b. The significance of location depends upon cultural developments both within and outside a country. | X | X | |
| *c. The topography of a region may present limitations given a specific level of technology; however man has learned to overcome many of the earlier limitations. | X | X | |
| d. Obstacles to communication may be social as well as physical. | | X | |
| *e. Climate may set up limitations upon man's activities given a specific level of technology, but man has learned to overcome many of the earlier limitations. | | X | |

* Introduced in earlier course.

# Taught but not stated as objective.

+ Introduced in part in earlier course.

| NTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF GENERALIZATIONS | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ntists set up classifications to suit their purposes; different criteria result in different classifications. | X | X | | | |
| is an area of one or more homogeneous features. The a is highly homogeneous, but there are transitional ere boundaries are drawn between different regions. | (First sentence) | X | | | |
| ion is delimited by some degree of homogeneity of mena which sets it apart from other regions. | | | | | X |
| ns are delimited on many different bases, depending the purpose of the study. Some are delimited on the of a single phenomenon, some on the basis of multiple mena, and some on the basis of functional relationships. | (First sentence) | X | | | |
| ntists develop hypotheses to guide their investigations. | X | | | | |
| frame of reference affects his perceptions and inter- | X | | | | |
| s' frame of reference is affected by his total life nces and affects his perceptions and interpretations. | X | | | | |
| mpossible to understand the meaning of a piece of without understanding the author's frame of reference of vocabulary. | X | | | | |
| ontain distortions of one kind or another; each map has both advantages and disadvantages, depending upon se in using a map. | | X | | | |
| is physical environment in terms of his cultural rceptions, and level of technology. | X | X | X | X | |
| or not a country's size provides more advantages or ntages depends upon the problems inhabitants face rticular time, upon their goals, and upon their level nology. | | X | X | | |
| nificance of location depends upon cultural developments thin and outside a country. | X | X | | X | |
| ography of a region may present limitations given a c level of technology; however man has learned to e many of the earlier limitations. | X | X | X | X | |
| es to communication may be social as well as physical. | | X | | | |
| may set up limitations upon man's activities given fic level of technology, but man has learned to over- ny of the earlier limitations. | | X | X | X | |

in earlier course.

not stated as objective.

+ Introduced in part in earlier course.

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *f. Types of agriculture in a region depend upon man's cultural values, perceptions, and technology as well as upon climate, soils, and topography. | | X | X |
| g. Population distribution reflects man's values and his technology as well as physical features of an area. | | X | X |
| * 6. Unevenly distributed phenomena form distinctive patterns on the map. | | X | |
| * 7. Population is distriubted unevenly over the earth's surface; many of the land areas are sparsely pupulated. | | X | X |
| *a. A number of factors--climate, surface features, natural resources, accessability and history- affect settlement patterns. | | | X |
| *1) Moist areas tend to have a higher population density than dry areas. However, population distribution reflects man's values and his technology as well as physical features of an area. | | | X |
| *2) Given cultural assumptions in which a large proportion of the population is engaged in intensive agriculture, the population distribution will be related to the distribution of usable land. | | | X |
| *3) A country with a large pupulation and a limited amount of fertile land will have extremely heavy population densities on the fertile land. | | | X |
| *8. Overpopulation represents a lack of balance between available income and population. The concept is relative and is defined by the value patterns and expectations of a particular culture. The starvation of a large proportion of the society amounts to absolute overpopulation. | | | X |
| 9. The degree of horizontal mobility within a society(including shifts of population from rural to urban areas) can have important effects upon society. | | X | |
| +10. Changes in the birth and death rates and in the ratio between sexes can have important effects upon a society. | | X | X |
| a. An increase in poopulation occurs when the birth rate plus immigration is greater than the death rate plus emigration. | X | X | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| griculture in a region depend upon man's cultural rceptions, and technology as well as upon climate, topography. | | X | X | X | |
| distribution reflects man's values and his technol- l as physical features of an area. | | X | X | X | |
| ributed phenomena form distinctive patterns on the | | X | | | |
| distriubted unevenly over the earth's surface; many reas are sparsely pupulated. | | X | X | X | |
| f factors--climate, surface features, natural re- ccessabllity and history- affect settlement patterns. | | | X | | |
| reas tend to have a higher population density than as. However, population distribution reflects man's and his technology as well as physical features of an | | | X | | |
| ultural assumptions in which a large proportion of ulation is engaged in intensive agriculture, the ion distribution will be related to the distribution le land. | | | X | | |
| ry with a large pupulation and a limited amount of land will have extremely heavy population densities fertile land. | | | X | | |
| n represents a lack of balance between available pulation. The concept is relative and is defined by terms and expectations of a particular culture. The a large proportion of the society amounts to population. | | | X | | |
| horizontal mobility within a society(including ulation from rural to urban areas) can have impor- pon society. | | X | | | |
| e birth and death rates and in the ratio between e important effects upon a society. | | X | X | X | |
| e in pooulation occurs when the birth rate plus n is greater than the death rate plus emigration. | X | X | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Ch |
|---|---|---|---|
| b. A country in which the proportion of the population in the age group from 18 to 30 increases, is likely to show an increasing rate of population growth, other factors remaining the same. | | | |
| c. Indistrialization and scientific developments which accompany it, usually bring an eventual drop in the birth rate; however, the death rate usually drops first, resulting in an initial increase in the rate of population growth. | | | |
| +11. Temperature is affected by the distance from the equator, elevation, distance from warm water bodies, wind patterns (including prevailing winds), air pressure systems, ocean currents, and physical features which block winds from certain directions. | | X | |
| *a. Places in the interior of continents tend to have greater extremes of temperature than places along the coast. | | X | |
| *1) The ocean and other large bodies of water do not heat so rapidly as land nor cool so rapidly as land. | | X | |
| *2) Winds which blow over warm bodies of water (or land areas) carry warm air to nearby land areas. | | X | |
| *12. The rotation of the earth produces day and night, while the inclination of the earth and its revolution around the sun result in seasons and differences in temperature on the earth's surface. | | X | |
| *13. Rainfall is affected by distance from bodies of warm water, wind direction, temperature, and physical features which block winds carrying moisture. | | X | |
| *14. Vegetation is affected by temperature, rainfall, and soil. | | | |
| *a. Vegetation is affected by temperature. (Grass will grow in some areas which are too cold for trees to grow.) | | X | |
| *15. Soil in a particular place is affected by the type of basic bed rock in the region; the climate; vegetation; erosion; wind, glaciers and rivers which move soil; and by how man treats the soil. | | X | |
| *a. Nature changes the earth through biotic processes. | | X | |
| +16. Both man and nature change the character of the earth. (Man cuts forests, causes erosion, changes the course of rivers, transports phenomena, removes the fertility of the soil by agricultural practices or builds up the fertility by other practices, builds dams, wells, and canals for irrigation, etc.) | | | (1 |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| y in which the proportion of the population in the age om 18 to 30 increases, is likely to show an increasing population growth, other factors remaining the same. | | | X | | |
| alization and scientific developments which accompany lly bring an eventual drop in the birth rate; however, h rate usually drops first, resulting in an initial in the rate of population growth. | | | X | | |
| is affected by the distance from the equator, elevance from warm water bodies, wind patterns (including winds), air pressure systems, ocean currents, and atures which block winds from certain directions. | | X | X | X | |
| n the interior of continents tend to have greater of temperature than places along the coast. | | X | X | | |
| cean and other large bodies of water do not heat so ly as land nor cool so rapidly as land. | | X | | | |
| which blow over warm bodies of water (or land areas) warm air to nearby land areas. | | X | | | |
| n of the earth produces day and night, while the of the earth and its revolution around the sun result and differences in temperature on the earth's | | X | | | |
| affected by distance from bodies of warm water, wind temperature, and physical features which block winds isture. | | X | X | | |
| is affected by temperature, rainfall, and soil. | | | X | | |
| on is affected by temperature. (Grass will grow in as which are too cold for trees to grow.) | | X | | | |
| articular place is affected by the type of basic bed region; the climate; vegetation; erosion; wind, d rivers which move soil; and by how man treats | | X | X | | |
| hanges the earth through biotic processes. | | X | | | |
| d nature change the character of the earth. (Man cuts ses erosion, changes the course of rivers, transports removes the fertility of the soil by agricultural r builds up the fertility by other practices, builds , and canals for irrigation, etc.) | | | (1st sentence only)<br>X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| *a. Biotic processes transform unconsilidated earth mantle into soil and help change the vegetational pattern. | | X | |
| *b. Nature fills in seas. | | | |
| *c. Nature changes the earth by physical processes. | | | X |
| *d. Man changes the character of the earth. | | | X |
| *1) Irrigation makes it possible to grow crops on land which otherwise would be too dry. | | | X |
| *2) Terracing makes it possible to grow crops on areas which otherwise would be too steep. | | | X |
| *17. Rivers flow from higher elevations to lower elevations. | | | X |
| *a. A river which moves rapidly carries with it much sediment and frequently cuts deep valleys; it tends to cut relatively straight paths rather than meandering patterns. | | | X |
| *b. A river which moves slowly across a plain drops gravel and sand that it has moved from higher areas; it also tends to twist and turn back on itself in many loops--to develop the ox-bow river pattern. | | | X |
| *18. Some things can be produced better in one place than another because of climate, resources, transportation routes, access to resources, access to markets, people's skills, etc. | X | X | |
| *a. Coal and iron are needed to produce steel which is a basic product needed in industry. | | | |
| *b. Power for industry is obtained from the use of coal, oil, natural gas, water, wind, and nuclear energy. | | | |
| *c. Differing crops need differing amounts of rainfall and differing temperatures and number of frost-free days in order to grow; they need water and dryiness at different times during their period of growth. | | X | X |
| *1) The land in hot regions dries fast as the warm air picks up moisture; therefore, more rain is needed to grow crops in these regions than in regions which are not so hot. | | X | |
| *d. A place needs cheap and rapid transportation in order to carry on much trade with other places. | X | | |
| *1) Improved transportation facilities make possible wider and bigger markets for goods as well as greater and less costly access to resources. | X | | |
| *19. Every economic system faces scarcity or a lack of enough productive resources to satisfy all human wants. | X | X | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ocesses transform unconsilidated earth mantle into elp change the vegetational pattern. | | X | | X | |
| lls in seas. | | | | X | |
| anges the earth by physical processes. | | | X | | |
| es the character of the earth. | | | X | | |
| tion makes it possible to grow crops on land which ise would be too dry. | | | X | | |
| ing makes it possible to grow crops on areas which ise would be too steep. | | | X | | |
| from higher elevations to lower elevations. | | | X | | |
| hich moves rapidly carries with it much sediment and y cuts deep valleys; it tends to cut relatively aths rather than meandering patterns. | | | X | | |
| hich moves slowly across a plain drops gravel and it has moved from higher areas; it also tends to turn back on itself in many loops--to develop the ver pattern. | | | X | | |
| can be produced better in one place than another limate, resources, transportation routes, access , access to markets, people's skills, etc. | X | X | | X | |
| iron are needed to produce steel which is a basic eeded in industry. | | | | X | |
| industry is obtained from the use of coal, oil, as, water, wind,and nuclear energy. | | | | X | |
| crops need differing amounts of rainfall and differ- ratures and number of frost-free days in order to y need water and dryiness at different times during iod of growth. | | X | X | | |
| nd in hot regions dries fast as the warm air picks sture; therefore, more rain is needed to grow crops se regions than in regions which are not so hot. | | X | | | |
| eeds cheap and rapid transportation in order to much trade with other places. | X | | | | |
| ed transportation facilities make possible wider gger markets for goods as well as greater and less access to resources. | X | | | | |
| ic system faces scarcity or a lack of enough productive satisfy all human wants. | X | X | X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| * a. Economic wants of people seem never to be satisfied, since many goods and services must be replenished constantly as they are used up, since population is expanding, and since new inventions create new wants. | | X | |
| * b. If resources are used to satisfy one want, they cannot be used to satisfy another. Only when resources are unemployed, will more expenditures on one thing, lead to the production of more of something else. | X | X | |
| +c. If productive resources are fully employed, investment in capital goods for future production requires some sacrifice in current production. | | X | X |
| * d. Misallocation of resources costs consumers what they could otherwise have had. | | X | X |
| *20. At any specific time, the total economic output is affected by the quantity and quality of productive resources (natural resources, labor, and capital goods), by the levels of technology, and by the efficiency of the organizational structure. | X | X | |
| * a. Output is affected by the quality as well as the quantity of natural resources. | X | | |
| *b. Economic output is affected by the quality of labor or labor skills as well as by the quantity of labor. | | X | |
| * 1) The quality of labor is usually increased by education and training. | | X | |
| 2) Labor productivity may rise both from the activities of workers themselves and from the accumulation of capital and technological and managerial advance. | | X | |
| *c. Output can be increased by technological progress in the development of tools and machines and power to replace manpower. | X | X | X |
| *d. Capital formation through saving is a major means of increasing an economy's total output over time because it increases productive capacity. | X | X | X |
| *1) The larger the productive capacity in relationship to the population, the less the hardship involved to consumers in making the savings (and investment) needed to achieve a given growth rate. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| wants of people seem never to be satisfied, since bds and services must be replenished constantly as used up, since population is expanding, and since new ns create new wants. | | X | | | |
| urces are used to satisfy one want, they cannot be used sfy another. Only when resources are unemployed, will penditures on one thing, lead to the production of more thing else. | X | X | | | |
| ictive resources are fully employed, investment in goods for future production requires some sacrifice nt production. | | X | X | X | |
| ation of resources costs consumers what they could e have had. | | X | X | | |
| ific time, the total economic output is affected by the d quality of productive resources (natural resources, capital goods), by the levels of technology, and by the of the organizational structure. | X | X | | X | |
| s affected by the quality as well as the quantity of resources. | X | | | | |
| output is affected by the quality of labor or labor s well as by the quantity of labor. | | X | | | |
| uality of labor is usually increased by education and ing. | | X | | | |
| productivity may rise both from the activities of rs themselves and from the accumulation of capital echnological and managerial advance. | | X | | X | |
| an be increased by technological progress in the ent of tools and machines and power to replace manpower. | X | X | X | | |
| formation through saving is a major means of increasing my's total output over time because it increases pro- capacity. | X | X | X | X | |
| arger the productive capacity in relationship to the ation, the less the hardship involved to consumers king the savings (and investment) needed to achieve en growth rate. | | X | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *e. The organizational structure of the total economy or any large sector of it (such as agriculture) affects efficiency of production and output, just as does the organizational structure within a single firm. | | X | |
| *1) The rational use of resources calls for the use of more of those resources in large supply as a substitute for those in short supply, even if a different balance might increase output per man hour. | | X | |
| *2) Division of labor and specialization in any mass production system permits reduction of cost per unit produced. | X | | X |
| a) Mass production permits reductions in costs, but it is dependent upon a big enough market to make it profitable. | X | | |
| *3) Output can be increased by a more efficient combination of productive resources (by the way in which production is organized). | X | | |
| #4) The technology of a society may be made more efficient both by the introduction of new machines and tools and by the way in which production is organized. | X | | |
| 21. Differences in productivity and in levels of living may result from differences in the stage of development rather than in the type of economic system per se. | | X | |
| * 22. Regardless of the kind of economic system, societies usually go through roughly the same stages of economic growth, even though the stages may not be clearly separated from each other. | X | | |
| * a. The transitional stage prior to rapid industrialization sees growth of a factor which upset traditional beliefs and practices, give rise to more favorable attitudes toward technological change and businessmen, create larger markets, lead to more accumulation of savings, lead to an increased productivity in agriculture and mining, lead to improve transportation systems, and give rise to the establishment of banks and other financial institutions. Most, though not all of these factors, are needed to bring about rapid industrialization. | X | | |
| *b. During the period of rapid industrialization (or what some have called the takeoff stage), there is an emphasis upon technological development, investment in capital goods, and the development of new industries. | X | | |
| *23. Living levels in the U.S. are very high compared to those in most countries. | | | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| izational structure of the total economy or any<br>tor of it (such as agriculture) affects efficiency<br>tion and output, just as does the organizational<br>within a single firm. | | X | | X | |
| tional use of resources calls for the use of more<br>se resources in large supply as a substitute for<br>in short supply, even if a different balance might<br>se output per man hour. | | X | | X | |
| on of labor and specialization in any mass production<br>permits reduction of cost per unit produced. | X | | X | | |
| s production permits reductions in costs, but it is<br>endent upon a big enough market to make it profitable. | X | | | | |
| can be increased by a more efficient combination<br>ductive resources (by the way in which production is<br>zed). | X | | | X | |
| chnology of a society may be made more efficient both<br>introduction of new machines and tools and by the<br>which production is organized. | X | | | | |
| in productivity and in levels of living may result<br>nces in the stage of development rather than in the<br>omic system per se. | | X | | | |
| f the kind of economic system, societies usually go<br>hly the same stages of economic growth, even though<br>ay not be clearly separated from each other. | X | | | | |
| sitional stage prior to rapid industrialization sees<br>a factor which upset traditional beliefs and practices,<br>to more favorable attitudes toward technological<br>d businessmen, create larger markets, lead to more<br>ion of savings, lead to an increased productivity<br>lture and mining, lead to improve transportation<br>and give rise to the establishment of banks and<br>ancial institutions. Most, though not all of these<br>are needed to bring about rapid industrialization. | X | | | | |
| e period of rapid industrialization (or what some<br>ed the takeoff stage), there is an emphasis upon<br>ical development, investment in capital goods, and<br>opment of new industries. | X | | | | |
| s in the U.S. are very high compared to those in most | | | X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| *24. It is difficult to compare real wages between countries because of differences in the importance of different types of goods for consumers, because of difficulties in assessing the comparative purchasing power of different monetary systems, because of difficulties of estimating cost of living (because of different prices for similar goods), because of the differences in quality of goods, and because of differences in the amount of socialized benefits provided by the different countries. | X | X | X |
| *25. Living levels do not rise unless output of production grows at a faster rate than population. | X | | X |
| *a. In an agricultural economy the rate of food production must increase as rapidly as the population if a given level of living is to be maintained. | | | X |
| *b. In the long run a rise in real wages will be achieved only by a rise in labor productivity. | X | | |
| *c. Levels of living are affected by the amount of goods and services which money incomes can buy, not just by changes in money incomes which may be affected by changes in prices. | X | X | |
| 26. Although there is no correlation between population density and dependency upon agriculture, non-industrialized countries which are densely populated tend to have low levels of living. | | | |
| *27. In all societies, people have certain economic goals. Although some economic goals are very much alike, different societies place differing emphasis upon them. | | X | |
| *a. People usually would like to see their economic system provide both economic growth (and so higher levels of living) and stability (and so economic security); however, the emphasis on each goal may differ. | | X | |
| *1) People's ideas of what constitutes an adequate level of living on one hand or poverty on the other changes as average living levels change and differ from one country to another. | X | X | |
| +b. People differ in the degree to which they desire freedom of economic choice (of occupation and/or disposal of income) as a goal of their economic system. | | X | |
| *c. People differ in the degree to which they desire a reduction in inequalities of economic opportunity or income. | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| lt to compare real wages between countries because of n the importance of different types of goods for cause of difficulties in assessing the comparative wer of different monetary systems, because of of estimating cost of living (because of different milar goods), because of the differences in quality because of differences in the amount of socialized ided by the different countries. | X | X | X | | |
| do not rise unless output of production grows at a han population. | X | | X | X | |
| cultural economy the rate of food production must s rapidly as the population if a given level of to be maintained. | | | X | | |
| g run a rise in real wages will be achieved only by labor productivity. | X | | | | |
| living are affected by the amount of goods and hich money incomes can buy, not just by changes in mes which may be affected by changes in prices. | X | X | | | |
| e is no correlation between population density and on agriculture, non-industrialized countries which populated tend to have low levels of living. | | | | X | |
| ies, people have certain economic goals. Although goals are very much alike, different societies ng emphasis upon them. | | X | X | | |
| ally would like to see their economic system provide mic growth (and so higher levels of living) and (and so economic security); however, the emphasis al may differ. | | X | X | | |
| s ideas of what constitutes an adequate level of on one hand or poverty on the other changes as living levels change and differ from one country her. | X | X | X | | |
| fer in the degree to which they desire freedom of hoice (of occupation and/or disposal of income) as a eir economic system. | | X | X | | |
| fer in the degree to which they desire a reduction in es of economic opportunity or income. | | | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *28. In general, people wish to sell their labor, land, or capital for the highest incomes possible in order to obtain the largest amount of desired goods and services possible. | X | | |
| *a. People tend to work hardest at those jobs for which they receive the greatest incentives (monetary and non-monetary.) | | X | |
| *1) In practice economic incentives in communist countries do not differ greatly from those in mature capitalist countries. | | X | |
| *b. In general business firms try to maximize profits. | | X | |
| *1) The incentive to achieve as large an income as possible is modified by other incentives. | | X | |
| *29. Prices (including wages) are affected by supply and demand. | X | X | |
| *a. Other things being equal, the price of a good rises when the good is in short supply as compared to the demand for the good and falls when the supply of the good is larger than the demand at the existing price. | X | X | |
| *b. Wage rates are affected by the supply and demand for labor. | X | | |
| c. If the money supply increases while the supply of goods remains the same, the demand for goods usually rises. | X | | |
| *30. Other things being equal, the higher the price for a good ( a product, labor, capital), the larger the quantity which will become available for sale. | X | | |
| *31. Adjustment of supply to demand is hampered by factors which decrease the mobility of productive resources. | X | | |
| + a. The use of large amounts of capital outlay for machines and buildings, etc. makes possible the reduction of costs per unit if they are fully employed; however, they make adjustment to a decline in demand more difficult. | X | | |
| +32. In a competitive system, many of the producers and consumers do not have a perfect knowledge of prices and quality of goods and methods used by others to reduce costs; consequently, the market system does not always work out in practice as described in theory. | X | | |
| *33. Collective bargaining enables workers to agglomorate their bargaining power in dealing with employers. | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| eople wish to sell their labor, land, or capital for ncomes possible in order to obtain the largest amount ods and services possible. | X | | | | |
| d to work hardest at those jobs for which they receive st incentives (monetary and non-monetary.) | | X | | | |
| tice economic incentives in communist countries do fer greatly from those in mature capitalist countries. | | X | | | |
| business firms try to maximize profits. | | X | | | |
| entive to achieve as large an income as possible is d by other incentives. | | X | | | |
| ding wages) are affected by supply and demand. | X | X | | | |
| gs being equal, the price of a good rises when the short supply as compared to the demand for the good when the supply of the good is larger than the demand sting price. | X | X | | | |
| are affected by the supply and demand for labor. | X | | | | |
| ey supply increases while the supply of goods remains the demand for goods usually rises. | X | | | | |
| being equal, the higher the price for a good ( a r, capital), the larger the quantity which will ble for sale. | X | | | | |
| supply to demand is hampered by factors which mobility of productive resources. | X | | | | |
| large amounts of capital outlay for machines and etc. makes possible the reduction of costs per unit e fully employed; however, they make adjustment to a demand more difficult. | X | | | | |
| ive system, many of the producers and consumers do not t knowledge of prices and quality of goods and methods s to reduce costs; consequently, the market system ys work out in practice as described in theory. | X | | | | |
| rgaining enables workers to agglomorate their bargain- dealing with employers. | X | | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| *34. Economic systems differ as to how questions are resolved about what and how much to produce, how it shall be produced, and who shall get what goods and services. | X | | |
| *a. The fundamental difference between economic systems is in how and by whom the basic economic decisions over allocation of resources are made, rather than in who owns the resources. | X | X | |
| *1) The power to allocate resources is important to the power to control what and how much will be produced. | | X | |
| *2) Economic systems are usually mixed, with both public and private ownership and with decisions made both by the government and by consumers. | | X | |
| *3) In a number of societies neither the government nor a market system is important in affecting how resources should be allocated. Such economic systems are based largely upon tradition and reciprocal relationships which grew up in the past. In all systems reciprocal relationships are combined with a market system or a command system. | X | | |
| *4) In a private enterprise system, it is the market which permits buyers and sellers to deal with one another, which translates demand and supply into a price system, and which is chiefly responsible for the way in which basic economic questions are worked out. The market serves to determine largely what shall be produced, how it shall be produced, and who shall get what part of the production (or national income). In other words, the market is the main allocating device. However, government policies and factors which interfere with perfect competition also affect the allocation of resources. | X | | |
| *a) Government policies affect the operation of the market. | X | | |
| *1) Government policies toward monopolies and restrictive practices affect business activities both directly by affecting prices and output and indirectly by affecting income distribution. | X | | |
| 5) In proactice in communist countries most means of production are owned by the government, although the proportion of government ownership varies. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| c systems differ as to how questions are resolved about<br>d how much to produce, how it shall be produced, and who<br>et what goods and services. | X | | | | |
| undamental difference between economic systems is in how<br>by whom the basic economic decisions over allocation of<br>urces are made, rather than in who owns the resources. | X | X | X | X | |
| he power to allocate resources is important to the power<br>o control what and how much will be produced. | | X | X | | |
| conomic systems are usually mixed, with both public and<br>rivate ownership and with decisions made both by the<br>overnment and by consumers. | | X | X | X | |
| n a number of societies neither the government nor a<br>arket system is important in affecting how resources<br>hould be allocated. Such economic systems are based large-<br>y upon tradition and reciprocal relationships which grew<br>p in the past. In all systems reciprocal relationships<br>re combined with a market system or a command system. | X | | | | |
| n a private enterprise system, it is the market which<br>ermits buyers and sellers to deal with one another, which<br>ranslates demand and supply into a price system, and which<br>s chiefly responsible for the way in which basic economic<br>uestions are worked out. The market serves to determine<br>argely what shall be produced, how it shall be produced,<br>nd who shall get what part of the production (or national<br>ncome). In other words, the market is the main allocating<br>evice. However, government policies and factors which<br>nterfere with perfect competition also affect the<br>llocation of resources. | X | | | | |
| ) Government policies affect the operation of the market. | X | | | | |
| *1) Government policies toward monopolies and restrictive practices affect business activities both directly by affecting prices and output and indirectly by affecting income distribution. | X | | | | |
| n practice in communist countries most means of produc-<br>ion are owned by the government, although<br>he proportion of government ownership varies. | | X | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *6) In command economies most of the basic economic decisions are made by the government. | | X | X |
| *a) The allocation of resources in a command economy is determined basically by the central planners, not by free consumer demand. | | X | |
| b) Centrally planned economics find it easier to divert resources to certain goals than do economics based upon a market system. | | X | |
| c) Even in a centrally planned economy, economic planners cennot make all of the decisions as to all of the details of what, how much, and how things shall be produced. | | X | X |
| *7) By its taxation policies, governments influence who shall get what proportion of certain kinds of output of the economic system. | X | X | X |
| a) Indirect taxes take a larger part of the income of those in lower income levels than of those in upper income levels if both groups buy the goods on which the taxes are placed. | | X | |
| *8) Government labor policies affect business activity directly by affecting hours of work or by restricting child and women labor. | X | | |
| +9) Government spending on goods and services and for transfer payments (pensions, social security, welfare) may make up for a lack of demand by the private sector and bring a rise in business activity. | X | | |
| *b. Most economic systems are in the process of constant change. | | X | X |
| 35. As economic systems become more mature and complex, centralized planning becomes more difficult, although modern computers facilitate the detailed planning needed. | | X | |
| a. The lack of techniques for measuring the value of capital makes it difficult to determine the most efficient use of capital investment in achieving goals and to decide when it is cheaper or more economic to build new factories or buy new machines rather than to repair old ones. | | X | |
| b. The lack of a free market system makes it difficult to evaluate the efficiency of managers of plants. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ommand economies most of the basic economic decisions made by the government. | | X | X | | |
| he allocation of resources in a command economy is etermined basically by the central planners, not by ree consumer demand. | | X | | | |
| entrally planned economics find it easier to divert esources to certain goals than do economics based upon market system. | | X | | | |
| ven in a centrally planned economy, economic planners annot make all of the decisions as to all of the details of what, how much, and how things shall be roduced. | | X | X | | |
| ts taxation policies, governments influence who shall what proportion of certain kinds of output of the omic system. | X | X | X | | |
| ndirect taxes take a larger part of the income of hose in lower income levels than of those in upper ncome levels if both groups buy the goods on which he taxes are placed. | | X | | | |
| ernment labor policies affect business activity ectly by affecting hours of work or by restricting ld and women labor. | X | | | | |
| ernment spending on goods and services and for transfer ments (pensions, social security, welfare) may make for a lack of demand by the private sector and bring ise in business activity. | X | | | | |
| conomic systems are in the process of constant . | | X | X | | |
| ic systems become more mature and complex, centralized becomes more difficult, although modern computers e the detailed planning needed. | | X | | | |
| ck of techniques for measuring the value of capital it difficult to determine the most efficient use of l investment in achieving goals and to decide when it aper or more economic to build new factories or buy achines rather than to repair old ones. | | X | | | |
| ck of a free market system makes it difficult to e the efficiency of managers of plants. | | X | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Ch |
|---|---|---|---|
| c. Both centralized and decentralization of economic planning have advantages and disadvantages in terms of the rational use of resources to achieve the major goals of planning for an entire economy. | | X | |
| * 36. Culture is learned, not inborn. | | | |
| * a. Human beings have similar drives but they satisfy these drives in different ways depending on their culture. | | | |
| b. Man's physiological characteristics and personalities are affected by learning. | | | |
| 1) Even romantic love is learned and is not present in all societies. | | | |
| 2) The impact of common patterns of child rearing and many other situations in any culture tends to develop personalities with some common characteristics (modal personalities) different from those in other societies. | | | |
| a) In different societies or in different groups within a society, some emotions and sentiments are strongly repressed; others are encouraged. As a result any one group has a modal personality or personalities among its adults. | | X | |
| + c. Members of a group influence the behavior of other members by setting up and enforcing norms for proper behavior; they even influence the perceptions of other members. | X | | |
| *37. Social control is enforced by social sanctions, formal and informal. | X | | |
| * 38. One of the major causes of factionalism within a group is the involvement of some of its members in other groups and organizations with competing goals and values. | | | |
| * 39. Members of any group may join it for varying reasons, some of which have nothing to do with the goals of the organization. | | | |
| * 40. An individual brought up in one culture and then thrust into another (or returning from another), faces serious problems of adjustment to the new culture; the resulting culture conflict involves mental conflict and tension. | | | |
| * 41. Families in different societies have different functions and differing emphasis upon similar functions. | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summar |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| entralized and decentralization of economic planning dvantages and disadvantages in terms of the rational resources to achieve the major goals of planning for ire economy. | | X | X | | |
| s learned, not inborn. | | | | | X |
| beings have similar drives but they satisfy these drives fferent ways depending on their culture. | | | | | X |
| physiological characteristics and personalities are ed by learning. | | | | | X |
| n romantic love is learned and is not present in all cieties. | | | | | X |
| impact of common patterns of child rearing and many er situations in any culture tends to develop personalies with some common characteristics (modal personalities) fferent from those in other societies. | | | X | | |
| In different societies or in different groups within a society, some emotions and sentiments are strongly repressed; others are encouraged. As a result any one group has a modal personality or personalities among its adults. | | X | | X | |
| rs of a group influence the behavior of other members by ng up and enforcing norms for proper behavior; they even ence the perceptions of other members. | X | | | | |
| ontrol is enforced by social sanctions, formal and in- | X | | | X | |
| he major causes of factionalism within a group is the ent of some of its members in other groups and organizath competing goals and values. | | | | X | |
| of any group may join it for varying reasons, some of ve nothing to do with the goals of the organization. | | | X | X | |
| idual brought up in one culture and then thrust into (or returning from another), faces serious problems of nt to the new culture; the resulting culture conflict mental conflict and tension. | | | | X | |
| in different societies have different functions and emphasis upon similar functions. | | | X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chin |
|---|---|---|---|
| a. Family functions may vary over time and from group to group within a society. | | X | |
| * 42. The structure of the family varies from society to society and from group to group within the society. | | X | X |
| a. All cultures have the nuclear family, even if the ideal combines the nuclear family in a more complex extended family system. | | | X |
| 43. Methods of mate selection vary over time and from one society to another. They are intimately tied up with the position of women, with attitudes toward property, with the stratification of society, and with other aspects of culture. | | | X |
| *44. The existence of culture is dependent upon man's ability to use symbols in communication. | X | | X |
| * a. Language enables man to make his experiences continuous and to apply previous experience with problems to new problems beyond actual physical experience; it makes the cumulativeness of culture possible. | X | | |
| * b. Language facilitates communication, the development of an ongoing culture, and reasoning. | X | | |
| * c. Writing facilitates communication and the cumulativeness of culture. | X | | |
| * 45. The broad outlines of the groupd plan of all cultures are about the same because men always and everywhere are faced with certain unavoidable problems arising out of the situation given by nature. | | | |
| * a. Every culture must provide for the needs for satisfaction of the elementary biological requirements such as warmth, food, and sex and the "need for positive affect" or gregariousness of man. | | | |
| b. All cultures have the nuclear family either as the sole prevailing form or as the basic unit from which more complex family forms are compounded; thus the nuclear family is universal. | | | |
| + c. The culture of every human society provides for differentiation of status and role among its members on the dimensions of age and sex plus additional aspects of differentiation such as authority. | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| functions may vary over time and from group to group a society. | | X | | | |
| ure of the family varies from society to society and to group within the society. | | X | X | X | |
| tures have the nuclear family, even if the ideal com- he nuclear family in a more complex extended family | | | X | | |
| mate selection vary over time and from one society to hey are intimately tied up with the position of women, udes toward property, with the stratification of nd with other aspects of culture. | | | X | # | |
| ce of culture is dependent upon man's ability to use communication. | X | | X | | |
| enables man to make his experiences continuous and previous experience with problems to new problems ctual physical experience; it makes the cumulative- culture possible. | X | | | | |
| facilitates communication, the development of an on- lture, and reasoning. | X | | | | |
| facilitates communication and the cumulativeness of | X | | | | |
| utlines of the groupd plan of all cultures are about cause men always and everywhere are faced with voidable problems arising out of the situation given | | | | | X |
| lture must provide for the needs for satisfaction of entary biological requirements such as warmth, food, and the "need for positive affect" or gregariousness | | | | | X |
| ures have the nuclear family either as the sole pre- form or as the basic unit from which more complex orms are compounded; thus the nuclear family is l. | | | | | X |
| ure of every human society provides for differentia- status and role among its members on the dimensions nd sex plus additional aspects of differentiation authority. | | | | | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Ch |
|---|---|---|---|
| d. Every culture has a language capable of expressing all concepts necessary to the people who are a part of that culture. | | | |
| * e. All cultures require a certain minimum of reciprocal behavior for cooperation to obtain subsistence and other ends of social life. | | | |
| + f. All cultures have a standard system of mutually accepted values. | | | |
| * 1) In all societies people are expected to behave in certain ways and are taught that certain things are good and certain things are bad. | X | | |
| + g. All cultures have a "religion" in the sense that all provide a set of behaviors which apply to those aspects of life which are believed to be not rationally understandable or controlable empirically and which includes an aspect of a non-empirically known order of the universe with relevance to the fate of the individual, his relationships in society, and his position in the universe. | | | |
| * 46. Whenever things valued by a society are scarce, there will be differentiated access to and control of those valued and scarce things by sub-groups within the society. These scarce things may be material or non-material. | X | X | |
| *a. Control of one or a few scarce things may enable the group to get control of other scarce and valued things and thus pyramid their control or power. | | X | |
| *b. Class membership has certain effects on life and behavior (class correlates). | X | X | |
| *c. Societies differ in the relative number of ascribed and achieved statuses they provide and in the relative emphasis on each. | | X | |
| *1) Every society provides for a differentiation of status among its members on the dimensions of age and sex plus additional aspects of differentiation. | | | |
| *2) Members of a caste cannot move out of their caste, although as the caste system changes, there is more likelihood of vertical mobility. | | | |
| a) Members of a caste must marry within the caste. | | | |
| *b) Members of a caste usually follow specific occupations. | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| culture has a language capable of expressing all pts necessary to the people who are a part of that re. | | | | | X |
| ltures require a certain minimum of reciprocal behavior operation to obtain subsistence and other ends of life. | | | | | X |
| ltures have a standard system of mutually accepted . | | | | | X |
| all societies people are expected to behave in certain ys and are taught that certain things are good and cern things are bad. | X | | | | |
| ltures have a "religion" in the sense that all provide of behaviors which apply to those aspects of life which lieved to be not rationally understandable or controlempirically and which includes an aspect of a nonically known order of the universe with relevance to ate of the individual, his relationships in society, is position in the universe. | | | | | X |
| things valued by a society are scarce, there will be tiated access to and control of those valued and scarce y sub-groups within the society. These scarce things aterial or non-material. | X | X | X | | |
| ol of one or a few scarce things may enable the group control of other scarce and valued things and thus id their control or power. | | X | X | | |
| membership has certain effects on life and behavior s correlates). | X | X | | | |
| ties differ in the relative number of ascribed and ved statuses they provide and in the relative emphasis ch. | | X | X | X | |
| ery society provides for a differentiation of status ong its members on the dimensions of age and sex plus ditional aspects of differentiation. | | | X | | |
| mbers of a caste cannot move out of their caste, alough as the caste system changes, there is more likelid of vertical mobility. | | | | X | |
| Members of a caste must marry within the caste. | | | | X | |
| Members of a caste usually follow specific occupations. | | | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *3) Castes have a fixed relationship, one to the other, which may involve exchange of services and mutual responsibilities and obligations. | | | |
| d. If an individual is aware of his membership in a class, this awareness may affect his behavior. | | X | |
| *47. Members of class can move out of a class by various means, and this mobility may be up or down. The degree of vertical mobility varies from society to society. | X | X | X |
| +a. Changes in the educational system may affect class structure. The more widespread the system of education, the greater the mobility between classes. | | X | X |
| *b. The more industrialized and urbanized the society, the more differentiated and open the system of stratifications; the less industrialized and urban the society, the less the mobility between classes. | | X | |
| *c. Societies differ in the degree of social mobility between classes which is possible. | | | X |
| 1) Although it is difficult to change a caste system, such systems do change as a result of economic and ideological changes. | | | |
| 48. The amount of class conflict is related to the degree of difference among classes, the degree of vertical mobility possible, and the degree to which propaganda is used to arouse or prevent class conflict. | | X | X |
| *49. Groups may engage in power conflict; one group tries to dominate another in order to take something from it, such as labor or wealth. | X | X | X |
| * a. In political conflict there is a struggle over scarce values or goals; each side tries to use the political system to attain its goals. | X | X | |
| *b. Conflict or struggle may bring together otherwise unrelated groups. Coalitions and temporary associations will result from conflict where primarily pragmatic interests of the participants are involved. | X | X | X |
| +c. Groups engaged in continued struggle with the outside tend to be intolerant within. They are unlikely to tolerate more than limited departures from group unity. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| have a fixed relationship, one to the other, may involve exchange of services and mutual sibilities and obligations. | | | | X | |
| dual is aware of his membership in a class, this y affect his behavior. | | X | | | |
| s can move out of a class by various means, and ay be up or down. The degree of vertical mobility iety to society. | X | X | X | | |
| he educational system may affect class structure. espread the system of education, the greater the ween classes. | | X | X | X | |
| istrialized and urbanized the society, the more ed and open the system of stratifications; the ialized and urban the society, the less the mo- en classes. | | X | | X | |
| ffer in the degree of social mobility between h is possible. | | | X | | |
| it is difficult to change a caste system, such o change as a result of economic and ideological | | | | X | |
| class conflict is related to the degree of g classes, the degree of vertical mobility poss- egree to which propaganda is used to arouse or conflict. | | X | X | | |
| ge in power conflict; one group tries to domin- order to take something from it, such as labor | X | X | X | | |
| conflict there is a struggle over scarce values ach side tries to use the political system to oals. | X | X | | | |
| struggle may bring together otherwise unrelated litions and temporary associations will result ct where primarily pragmatic interests of the s are involved. | X | X | X | X | |
| ged in continued struggle with the outside tend rant within. They are unlikely to tolerate more departures from group unity. | | X | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Ch |
|---|---|---|---|
| * 1) Countries are more intolerant of those they consider subversive in times of crisis and threats from abroad than during times when they face no such threats. | X | | |
| *d. Conflict serves to establish and maintain the identity and boundary lines of societies and groups. | X | | |
| 1) In one-party countries it is necessary to identify the party with the country or invent an "enemy" to hold the party together. | X | | |
| * e. Continued engagement in conflict tends to bring about the acceptance by both parties of common rules regulating the conduct of conflict. | X | | |
| * f. Conflicts in which people feel that they are fighting for ideals are likely to be fiercer than those which involve only personal reasons. Religious conflict may be fierce and aim at the complete annihilation or conversion of the enemy. | X | | |
| 1) Whether or not a religious group will attempt to annihilate members of other groups or will adopt some of the beliefs of other religious groups depends upon the basic beliefs and values of the religion. | | | |
| * g. Conflict with another group (as in war) leads to the mobilization of the energies of group members and hence to increased cohesion of the group. | | | |
| h. Industrial conflict does not occur in all societies; it does not occur in a dictatorship which uses force to suppress internal conflict. | X | X | |
| *50. Accommodation may occur among individuals having equal status and power or it may occur when one individual or group is in a dominating position and can force others to accommodate. | | X | |
| a. Minority groups are sometimes forced to accommodate. | | X | |
| b. In autocratic governments, those who refuse to accommodate are punished. | | X | |
| #c. When one country wins a war, it may force the defeated party to accommodate. | | X | |
| *d. Compromise is easier where there is not an ideological perception of the issues, that is, where the issues are not moralized and seen as related to ther issues. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ntries are more intolerant of those they consider sub- rsive in times of crisis and threats from abroad n during times when they face no such threats. | X | | | | |
| ct serves to establish and maintain the identity and ry lines of societies and groups. | X | | | | |
| one-party countries it is necessary to identify the ty with the country or invent an "enemy" to hold the ty together. | X | | | | |
| ued engagement in conflict tends to bring about the ance by both parties of common rules regulating the t of conflict. | X | | | | |
| cts in which people feel that they are fighting for are likely to be fiercer than those which involve only al reasons. Religious conflict may be fierce and aim at mplete annihilation or conversion of the enemy. | X | | | X | |
| ther or not a religious group will attempt to annihilate bers of other groups or will adopt some of the beliefs other religious groups depends upon the basic beliefs values of the religion. | | | | X | |
| ct with another group (as in war) leads to the mobiliza- f the energies of group members and hence to increased ion of the group. | | | | X | |
| rial conflict does not occur in all societies; it does cur in a dictatorship which uses force to suppress al conflict. | X | X | | | |
| tion may occur among individuals having equal status or it may occur when one individual or group is in ing position and can force others to accommodate. | | X | | | |
| ity groups are sometimes forced to accommodate. | | X | | | |
| tocratic governments, those who refuse to accommodate nished. | | X | | | |
| ne country wins a war, it may force the defeated party commodate. | | X | | | |
| mise is easier where there is not an ideological per- n of the issues, that is, where the issues are not mor- d and seen as related to ther issues. | | X | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1) Individuals tend to moralize their ideologies into right-wrong, good-bad, true-false, black and white dichotomies which make compromise difficult if not immoral. | | X | |
| * 51. Frustration may result in aggression or scapegoating. | X | | |
| * a. Frustration may result in aggression | X | X | |
| * b. When cultural norms are strongly opposed to aggression toward certain people, or people are frustrated by events beyond their control or the control of people whom they know, the aggression may be turned against others who become scapegoats. | X | | |
| *52. Authoritarian personalities tend to be conformist, to use stereotyped thinking, and to project their own traits which they consider undesirable onto other people; many prejudiced people are authoritarian personalities. | X | | |
| *53. Pepple try to work out rationalizations for behaivor which is inconsistent with their basic values; racism is a relatively recent develpment which has served as a rationalization for discrimination against other races (or so-called races). | X | | |
| * a. Racial beliefs involve strongly-held attitudes which affect behavior both at the conscious and unconscious level. | X | | |
| *54. The behavior of people in crowds differs from their behavior in institutions. | X | | |
| *55. Discrimination against a minority group tends to isolate members of the group and promotes retention of their cultural values and norms. | X | | |
| *56. Although culture is always changing, certain parts or elements may persist over long periods of time. | X | X | X |
| *a. Culture traits may change through a process of diffusion. | X | X | X |
| *1) People who are in contact with each other are likely to borrow cultural traits from each other. | X | | |
| *2) Migration of people from one part of the world to another involves the movement of culture and material objects, thus resulting in changes in the area to which people migrate. | X | X | |
| *b. Culture traits may change as a result of innovation from within a society. | X | X | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ls tend to moralize their ideologies into right- od-bad, true-false, black and white dichotomies e compromise difficult if not immoral. | | X | | | |
| result in aggression or scapegoating. | X | | | | |
| may result in aggression | X | X | | | |
| l norms are strongly opposed to aggression toward le, or people are frustrated by events beyond l or the control of people whom they know, the ay be turned against others who become scapegoats. | X | | | | |
| ersonalities tend to be conformist, to use nking, and to project their own traits which ndesirable onto other people; many prejudiced oritarian personalities. | X | | | | |
| ork out rationalizations for behaivor which with their basic values; racism is a relatively ment which has served as a rationalization for against other races (or so-called races). | X | | | | |
| fs involve strongly-held attitudes which affect h at the conscious and unconscious level. | X | | | | |
| people in crowds differs from their behavior s. | X | | | | |
| against a minority group tends to isolate members d promotes retention of their cultural values | X | | | | |
| e is always changing, certain parts or elements r long periods of time. | X | X | X | X | |
| its may change through a process of diffusion. | X | X | X | X | |
| o are in contact with each other are likely to ltural traits from each other. | X | | | | |
| of people from one part of the world to another the movement of culture and material objects, lting in changes in the area to which people | X | X | | X | |
| its may change as a result of innovation from ciety. | X | X | X | # | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| * c. People change their culture if they feel a real need for change, if they are dissatisfied with present aspects of their culture. (People do not change their culture unless they feel a need for change. | | X | |
| 1) Persons brought up in one tradition tend to think these ways good ways of behaving. When people in a society lose this belief about its ways, they are likely to change them. | | | |
| d. Change introduced from above or without is more likely to occur if it is enforced, that is, if sanctions are applied to people one desires to change, providing a need for change they do not feel spontaneously. | | X | |
| * e. Some values are conducive to change, some make change difficult. | X | X | |
| + 1) Where people have adopted a fatalistic attitude, change is much less likely than in societies where the people believe that "a high degree of mastery over nature and social conditions is possible." | X | | |
| *2) Traditional societies, which look to tradition for guidance and do not welcome technological change, have very slow rates af economic growth. | X | | |
| *f. Persistence of cultural traits may be a result of the lack of exposure to conditions which further change or to a reluctance to change. | X | X | |
| *1) Change in society is likely to occur more frequently or more readily in the less basic, less emotionally charged, more instrumental or technical aspects than in such things as basic values, primary group relations, territorial and religious stability, and prestige systems. | X | | |
| *2) The more a social change threatens or appears to threaten the traditional values of society, the greater the resistance to that change and the greater its attendant cost in social and personal disorganization. | | | |
| *3) Supernatural beliefs involve complexes of behavior which are usually very resistant to change. | X | | |
| *g. Certain facets of the social structure may inhibit marked social change and innovation. | X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| change their culture if they feel a real need for , if they are dissatisfied with present aspects of their e. (People do not change their culture unless they feel for change. | | X | | X | |
| sons brought up in one tradition tend to think these s good ways of behaving. When people in a society lose s belief about its ways, they are likely to change m. | | | | | X |
| introduced from above or without is more likely to if it is enforced, that is, if sanctions are applied to one desires to change, providing a need for change they feel spontaneously. | | X | | | |
| alues are conducive to change, some make change diffi- | X | X | X | X | |
| re people have adopted a fatalistic attitude, change much less likely than in societies where the people ieve that "a high degree of mastery over nature and ial conditions is possible." | X | | | X | |
| ditional societies, which look to tradition for guidance do not welcome technological change, have very slow es af economic growth. | X | | | | |
| tence of cultural traits may be a result of the lack of re to conditions which further change or to a reluctance nge. | X | X | X | X | |
| nge in society is likely to occur more frequently or e readily in the less basic, less emotionally charged, e instrumental or technical aspects than in such things basic values, primary group relations, territorial and igious stability, and prestige systems. | X | | | X | |
| more a social change threatens or appears to threaten traditional values of society, the greater the resis- ce to that change and the greater its attendant cost social and personal disorganization. | | | | X | |
| ernatural beliefs involve complexes of behavior which usually very resistant to change. | X | | | | |
| n facets of the social structure may inhibit marked change and innovation. | X | X | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *1) Class structure may inhibit social change because upper class members will fear loss of rights and not accept ideas of people of lower classes. | | X | |
| +a) Those who benefit most from the stratification system are most likely to accept it and most likely to oppose change. (Those on top tend to rationalize the justice of the stratification system as something natural--justified by religion or ability.) | | X | |
| b) The division of labor and responsibilites among castes produces a mutually interdependent, very stable, and slow-changing society. | | X | |
| *c) The greatest push to improve levels of living is more likely to come from those above the bottom strata of society than from those at the bottom. | | X | |
| | | | |
| 2) Family structure and communal structure may make change difficult. | | X | X |
| h. When an individual is strongly attached to a group and is in continuing contact with it, his group-anchored beliefs and behaviors are much less likely to change than as if he is far removed from the group. | | X | |
| i. Frequently, change introduced from the outside is accepted for a time, with resulting loss of traditional values and conflict between generations. Later, as members of the society discover that they cannot participate fully in the dominant culture (or dominating society), or as they develop feelings of insecurity, they react by developing nativistic movements to reject the foreign culture and restore their old cultural values. | | | X |
| *57. To be successful, a person who tries to introduce technological change into a country must analyze many factors before selecting techniques to be used. | | | |
| a. Attempts to introduce change may fail if those trying to bring about the change do not try to make changes congruent with existing structures. | | | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| cture may inhibit social change because upper ers will fear loss of rights and not accept eople of lower classes. | | X | | X | |
| ho benefit most from the stratification system t likely to accept it and most likely to oppose (Those on top tend to rationalize the justice stratification system as something natural-- ed by religion or ability.) | | X | | X | |
| ision of labor and responsibilites among castes s a mutually interdependent, very stable, and nging society. | | X | | X | |
| atest push to improve levels of living is more to come from those above the bottom strata of than from those at the bottom. | | X | | X | |
| | | | | | |
| ucture and communal structure may make change | | X | X | | |
| idual is strongly attached to a group and is contact with it, his group-anchored beliefs are much less likely to change than as if he is rom the group. | | X | | | |
| hange introduced from the outside is accepted ith resulting loss of traditional values and een generations. Later, as members of the society they cannot participate fully in the dominant ominating society), or as they develop feelings , they react by developing nativistic movements foreign culture and restore their old es. | | | X | | |
| , a person who tries to introduce technological untry must analyze many factors before select- o be used. | | | | X | |
| ntroduce change may fail if those trying to bring nge do not try to make changes congruent with ctures. | | | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. |
|---|---|---|
| b. Outsiders may fail to introduce change if they fail to fit the change into the value system of the society to be changed. | | |
| c. Those from another culture who attempt to induce technological change may fail because they fail to communicate with the people of the underdeveloped country. | | |
| *d. Securing participation by the people in all phases of the innovation process gives people a chance to develop a feeling of need for it and enables them to work out adjustments in their own way. | | |
| *e. It helps if someone with great authority and prestige can be induced to be first in adopting an innovation. | | |
| *f. Change is more likely to occur if it is enforced; that is if sanctions are applied to people one desires to change, providing a need for change which people do not feel spontaneously. | | |
| g. Ill-considered attempts to introduce change may backfire and arouse resistance to future attempts at change. | | |
| h. Broad-scale trends in the emergence of cultural forms are demonstrable; over time these forms have passed from simplicity to complexity. An important consequence of cultural evolution is the progressive increase of the amount of energy put under control for utilization by men. | | |
| *58. A given culture is an integrated whole, based on fundamental postulates or values. | X | X |
| *a. All the institutions in a society are related; because of this interrelationship, a change in one institution is likely to affect other instituitions. (Changes in the family are reflected in other institutions and changes in other institutions are reflected in the family.) | X | X |
| 1) Major shifts in the economic basis of livelihood are almost always followed by significant changes in the nature of family organization and role of women. | | |
| +2) An institution is an interrelated cluster of roles and the attached meanings and values; changes in institutions are consumated by changes in roles and consequently by changes in relations between these members and outsiders. Unless these role relations change, the institution does not change despite change in the particular people who assume the roles. | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ders may fail to introduce change if they fail to fit hange into the value system of the society to be changed. | | | | X | |
| from another culture who attempt to induce technologi- hange may fail because they fail to communicate with the e of the underdeveloped country. | | | | X | |
| ing participation by the people in all phases of the ation process gives people a chance to develop a feeling ed for it and enables them to work out adjustments in own way. | | | | X | |
| lps if someone with great authority and prestige can be ed to be first in adopting an innovation. | | | | X | |
| e is more likely to occur if it is enforced; that is if ions are applied to people one desires to change, ding a need for change which people do not feel aneously. | | | | X | |
| onsidered attempts to introduce change may backfire and e resistance to future attempts at change. | | | | X | |
| -scale trends in the emergence of cultural forms are strable; over time these forms have passed from simplic- o complexity. An important consequence of cultural tion is the progressive increase of the amount of energy nder control for utilization by men. | | | | | X |
| culture is an integrated whole, based on fundamental es or values. | X | X | X | X | |
| he institutions in a society are related; because of interrelationship, a change in one institution is likely fect other instituitions. (Changes in the family are cted in other institutions and changes in other institu- are reflected in the family.) | X | X | | X | |
| jor shifts in the economic basis of livelihood are almost ways followed by significant changes in the nature family organization and role of women. | | | | X | |
| institution is an interrelated cluster of roles and the tached meanings and values; changes in institutions are nsumated by changes in roles and consequently by anges in relations between these members and outsiders. less these role relations change, the institution does change despite change in the particular people who sume the roles. | | | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *b. Changes in one aspect of a culture will have effects on other aspects; changes will ramify whether they are technological, in social organization, in ideology, or whatever else is a part of the cultural system. | X | X | X |
| *1) Technological change may create serious problems in a society. | | X | |
| *59. Political revolutions are usually the result of multiple causes. | X | X | X |
| *60. Each culture is unique. | X | X | # |
| *61. Ideologies are important for the structure they give to the political system, the answers they give to ambiguous situations, and the cues for responses they suggest. | X | X | X |
| 62. Ideology is associated with those people in the political system with the greatest political awareness, involvement, and information. | | | X |
| 63. People with different ideologies may perceive the same scene and their ideologies will give it sharply different meaning and significance --maybe even different perceptions of the facts. | | | X |
| *a. A person's perceptions are affected by his values and ideology. | | X | X |
| *64. No country lives up completely to its ideology. | | | |
| *65. The contrast between democratic and non-democratic political systems may be looked at as a conflict in basic underlying values. | X | | X |
| *a. The community demands order and stability--goals which may be incompatible with the demands of individuals. The continuing attempt to solve the dilemmas of this conflict is the central problem in all attempts to create and modify political institutions. | X | X | X |
| #1) In totalitarian countries the individual's rights are sacrificed for the good of the state. | X | X | X |
| *2) The democratic system includes the following values: respect for the individual personality and individual freedom, belief in rationality, equality, justice, rule by law, and constitutionalism. | X | | |

| | Western Eurppe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| aspect of a culture will have effects on<br>changes will ramify whether they are techno-<br>cial organization, in ideology, or whatever<br>of the cultural system. | X | X | X | X | |
| al change may create serious problems in a | | X | | X | |
| ions are usually the result of multiple causes. | X | X | X | | |
| nique. | X | X | # | # | |
| portant for the structure they give to the<br>the answers they give to ambiguous situations,<br>responses they suggest. | X | X | X | X | |
| iated with those people in the political<br>reatest political awareness, involvement, | | | X | | |
| rent ideologies may perceive the same scene<br>ies will give it sharply different meaning<br>--maybe even different perceptions of the | | | X | | |
| ceptions are affected by his values and | | X | X | X | |
| up completely to its ideology. | | | | | |
| een democratic and non-democratic political<br>oked at as a conflict in basic underlying | X | | X | | |
| demands order and stability--goals which may<br>e with the demands of individuals. The<br>empt to solve the dilemmas of this conflict<br>problem in all attempts to create and modify<br>itutions. | X | X | X | X | |
| rian countries the individual's rights are<br>for the good of the state. | X | X | X | | |
| tic system includes the following values:<br>the individual personality and individual<br>lief in rationality, equality, justice, rule<br>constitutionalism. | X | | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chi |
|---|---|---|---|
| *a) There is a difference in value assumptions about the individual, his worth and competence; democracy accords the individual a greater role in the direct determination of his destiny. | X | | |
| *b) The history of democracy over the last several centuries has been one of the gradual expansion of electorates by the elimination of voting qualifications. | X | | |
| | | | |
| *b. Freedom's relationship to democracy is a close and obvious one; the organizations of majorities, the competition in goals, and the ability to oppose which democracy presupposes all depend on high degree of personal freedom. | X | | |
| c. Government action may create the conditions for the enjoyment of freedom and basically, it may create the conditions of order and stability without which the freedom means nothing; it may also curb non-governmental menaces to freedom. | | | |
| *66. Totalitarianisms extend the scope of politics far beyond the usual to include almost all aspects of life. | X | X | |
| a. The unity and homogeniety of life which totalitarianism demands is contrary to the pluralism of liberal democracy. (Totalitarianisms cannot tolerate the existence of groups or institutions which may be the source of loyalties which compete with or diminish those of the state.) | X | X | |
| b. Totalitarianism finds it impossible to coerce a large population constantly; instead, it coerces indirectly by controlling wills, fears, etc., through the use of symbols, mass media, etc. | X | X | |
| 1) Totalitarianisms may seek to alter the content of the arts to use them for the propagandistic and symbolic purposes of the totalitarian political system. | X | X | |
| *2) Agencies of political socialization include those within the political system as well as those without (such as mass media, social groups, etc.); in fact, totalitarian political systems are marked by governmental dominance of this process. | X | X | |
| *c. Since democracy is the chief political expectation of the times, ologarchies have had to accept the symbols and forms of democracy, if not its substance. | X | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| There is a difference in value assumptions about the individual, his worth and competence; democracy accords the individual a greater role in the direct determination of his destiny. | X | | | | |
| The history of democracy over the last several centuries has been one of the gradual expansion of electorates by the elimination of voting qualifications. | X | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| 's relationship to democracy is a close and obvious one; anizations of majorities, the competition in goals, and lity to oppose which democracy presupposes all depend degree of personal freedom. | X | | X | X | |
| ent action may create the conditions for the enjoyment dom and basically, it may create the conditions of nd stability without which the freedom means nothing; also curb non-governmental menaces to freedom. | | | | X | |
| anisms extend the scope of politics far beyond the usual almost all aspects of life. | X | X | X | | |
| ty and homogeniety of life which totalitarianism demands rary to the pluralism of liberal democracy. (Totalisms cannot tolerate the existence of groups or institu- hich may be the source of loyalties which compete with nish those of the state.) | X | X | X | | |
| arianism finds it impossible to coerce a large popula- nstantly; instead, it coerces indirectly by controlling fears, etc., through the use of symbols, mass media, etc. | X | X | X | | |
| litarianisms may seek to alter the content of the arts to them for the propagandistic and symbolic purposes of the litarian political system. | X | X | X | | |
| cies of political socialization include those within political system as well as those without (such as mass a, social groups, etc.); in fact, totalitarian political tems are marked by governmental dominance of this process. | X | X | X | | |
| emocracy is the chief political expectation of the ologarchies have had to accept the symbols and f democracy, if not its substance. | X | X | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *1) Oligarchies maintain themselves within the forms of democracy by control of resources, information, attention, and expertise. | X | X | |
| *d. Recent totalitarianisms have often been symbolized by the political leader. Instead of demanding the full and total loyalty to the abstraction of the state, the totalitarian regime personalizes that loyalty in the leader. | X | X | X |
| e. Oligarchies have had persistent troubles in solving the problem of succession, especially where they have abandoned the succession by birth. | | X | X |
| f. There are strains between the political ideal of dictatorship and the organizational demands of modern industrial society. | | X | X |
| *g. In contemporary oligarchies the political party becomes the instrument by which the few govern in the name of many. | X | | |
| *67. Individuals know the political system as a set of images and pictures created for them by communicators; they react to those images rather than to the real world and real people. | X | X | |
| *a. Individuals know a foreign culture as a set of images and pictures created for them by communicators; they react to these images rather than to the real world and real people. | | | |
| *b. Control of political communication is effective control of political behavior. | X | X | X |
| *c. Most political communication depends on the use of negative and positive symbols, stereotypes, and other communication short-cuts; effective communication depends on the effective manipulation of those symbolic tools. | X | X | |
| * 68. Political scientists have long assumed that there are social conditions which a society must meet before it can make a go of democracy; they hardly agree on what they are, but most suggest common values, a communication system, a stable society, a minimum economic well being. Although literacy no longer appears to be indispensible, there is a need for a communication system of some sort. | | | |
| * a. Democracy does not bear up well in societies in which basic dissatisfactions with the social and economic institutions prevail and become the focus of political competition. | X | | |
| *b. Obstacles to communication may create the belief that other peoples are outsiders and/or enemies. | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| s maintain themselves within the forms of democracy of resources, information, attention, and exper- | X | X | | | |
| tarianisms have often been symbolized by the ler. Instead of demanding the full and total loyalty tion of the state, the totalitarian regime hat loyalty in the leader. | X | X | X | | |
| ave had persistent troubles in solving the ccession, especially where they have abandoned n by birth. | | X | X | | |
| ains between the political ideal of dictatorship izational demands of modern industrial society. | | X | X | | |
| ry oligarchies the political party becomes the which the few govern in the name of many. | X | | | | |
| the political system as a set of images and for them by communicators; they react to those an to the real world and real people. | X | X | | | |
| now a foreign culture as a set of images and ted for them by communicators; they react to these than to the real world and real people. | | | | X | |
| litical communication is effective control of avior. | X | X | X | | |
| l communication depends on the use of negative and ols, stereotypes, and other communication short- ve communication depends on the effective man- those symbolic tools. | X | X | | | |
| ists have long assumed that there are social con- society must meet before it can make a go of hardly agree on what they are, but most suggest communication system, a stable society, a well being. Although literacy no longer appears ble, there is a need for a communication system | | | | X | |
| s not bear up well in societies in which basic ons with the social and economic institutions pre- me the focus of political competition. | X | | | X | |
| communication may create the belief that other utsiders and/or enemies. | | | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chin |
|---|---|---|---|
| *1) Obstacles to communication may be social as well as geographic. | | | |
| * c. Effective political communication depends both on technological skills and on the skills of the population. | | X | X |
| *1) Effective political communication depends in part upon the skills of the population (literacy or at least a common language). | | | |
| * d. Freedom is culturally determined; the individual has to be taught what the options are, how one goes about exercising them, why he should exercise them. | X | X | |
| *69. Decision-making in a large, complex society is shared by several groups and is subject to varying influences and limitations. | | X | |
| *a. Political power is unevenly distributed through a population. | | X | X |
| *1) The unequal distribution of political power reflects the basic unequal distribution of resources, skills, and motivation in the society. | | | |
| *2) The unequal distribution of power reflects the fact of political organization; individuals join into aggregates to increase their political power by joining it with others. | | | |
| #3) Political decision-making in a democracy is shared by several groups and is subject to varying influences. | X | X | |
| *4) Political power may rest in formal governmental positions, but need not. | X | | |
| 5) Decision-making in an oligarchy rests with a small group. | X | | X |
| a) In a totalitarian country there is no separation of powers between those who make and those who carry out policy. | X | | |
| *6) It is unlikely that one could find many genuine autocracies (rule by one) in a complex modern government; they are very likely really oligarchies. The scope of government and the variety of clienteles demands a variety of skills that one man does not possess. | X | X | X |
| *a) Every decision-maker is dependent on advice, knowledge, information, political intelligence, and as a result, those advisors who can provide him with it have an important base for exerting power and influence on the official. | X | X | X |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ies to communication may be social as well as geo- . | | | | X | |
| political communication depends both on technological on the skills of the population. | | X | X | X | |
| ive political communicatinn depends in part upon the of the population (literacy or at least a common ge). | | | | X | |
| culturally determined; the individual has to be at the options are, how one goes about exercising them, ould exercise them. | X | X | | X | |
| ing in a large, complex society is shared by several subject [illegible] varying influences and limitations. | | X | | | |
| power is unevenly distributed through a population. | | X | X | X | |
| equal distribution of political power reflects the nequal distribution of resources, skills, and tion in the society. | | | | X | |
| equal distribution of power reflects the fact of cal organization; individuals join into aggregates rease their political power by joining it with others. | | | | X | |
| cal decision-making in a democracy is shared by groups and is subject to varying influences. | X | X | | | |
| cal power may rest in formal governmental positions, ed not. | X | | | | |
| on-making in an oligarchy rests with a small group. | X | | X | | |
| totalitarian country there is no separation of ers between those who make and those who carry out icy. | X | | | | |
| unlikely that one could find many genuine autocracies by one) in a complex modern government; they are very really oligarchies. The scope of government and the y of clienteles demands a variety of skills that one es not possess. | X | X | X | | |
| ry decision-maker is dependent on advice, knowledge, ormation, political intelligence, and as a result, se advisors who can provide him with it have an im- tant base for exerting power and influence on the icial. | X | X | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China |
|---|---|---|---|
| *b) A law or policy must be effectuated and applied; in that process the whole decision-making process goes on again. | | X | X |
| *b. Decision-making is affected by many factors. | X | # | # |
| *1) Any decision is in part the product of the internalized values, the perceptions, and the experiences of the person making the decisions. | X | X | X |
| *2) Political decison-making is limited by many factors: permissability, available resources, available time, available information, and previous commitments. | | X | X |
| *a) The institutions of government constitute the arenas or the structure within which the authoritative decisions of the political process are made; actual institutions may not conform with those in written documents. | X | X | |
| (1) It is easier for a totalitarian system to make drastic changes rapidly than it is for a democratic system to do so. | | X | |
| *b) The decision-maker reacts to pressures from other decision makers and to public opinion; however, the way in which these factors influence decision-making differs in democratic and totalitarian societies. | | X | |
| 70. The means used may make it difficult to achieve the stated ends. | | X | |
| * 71. Taking the policy-making process as a whole, the general strategic advantages lie with the status quo. | | X | |
| * 72. The leadership of any group must try to maintain group cohesion and must also organize its strategies and provide intellectual leadership. | | X | |
| a. Dictators may be aggressive in order to build or not lose support at home. | | X | |
| *73. The type of leader differs in different situations. | | X | |
| a. The requirements for leadership may chage; as an organization or government develops, the need for leaders with administrative skills tends to replace the need for a charismatic leader. | | X | |
| *74. The number of political parties in the system will depend on the basic nature of the cohesions and conflicts in the society, on the government structure, and on the electoral system. | | | |
| *75. One-party systems tend to develop a competitiveness within the dominant party, but this factional competitiveness lacks the stability and predictability of inter-party competition. | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| policy must be effectuated and applied; in that the whole decision-making process goes on again. | | X | X | | |
| ng is affected by many factors. | X | # | # | # | |
| on is in part the product of the internalized perceptions, and the experiences of the person decisions. | X | X | X | X | |
| ecison-making is limited by many factors: permis- available resources, available time, available n, and previous commitments. | | X | X | X | |
| itutions of government constitute the arenas or cture within which the authoritative decisions of tical process are made; actual institutions may fer with those in written documents. | X | X | | X | |
| easier for a totalitarian system to make drastic es rapidly than it is for a democratic system to o. | | X | | | |
| sion-maker reacts to pressures from other decision and to public opinion; however, the way in which actors influence decision-making differs in dem- and totalitarian societies. | | X | | X | |
| ay make it difficult to achieve the stated ends. | | X | | | |
| -making process as a whole, the general strategic ith the status quo. | | X | | | |
| any group must try to maintain group cohesion ganize its strategies and provide intellectual | | X | | X | |
| be aggressive in order to build or not lose me. | | X | | | |
| er differs in different situations. | | X | | X | |
| nts for leadership may chage; as an organization develops, the need for leaders with administra- ends to replace the need for a charismatic leader. | | X | | | |
| litical parties in the system will depend on the he cohesions and conflicts in the society, on ructure, and on the electoral system. | | | | X | |
| tend to develop a competitiveness within the ut this factional competitiveness lacks the dictability of inter-party competition. | | X | | X | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | Chin |
|---|---|---|---|
| #76. The relative centralization or decentralization of power within political parties is related to the centralization of authority within the political system as a whole. | X | X | X |
| *77. Every legislature is directly a product of the electoral and consitutency system which produces it; the composition and loyalties of the members affect access of different groups in society to the legislative body. | X | | |
| *78. Federalism pays greater homage than unitary systems to local differences and autonomy but it also pays the greater price in inconsistency and diversity. | | | |
| *79. The separation of powers is intended to and does produce institutional deadlock and delay more often than the parliamentary system does. | X | | |
| a. Deadlock is ruled out of the operation of parliamentary systems by the dependence of the cabinet on the on-going support of a majority of the legislators. | X | | |
| 80. The political importance of the judiciary depends largely on whether or not it has responsibility for declaring acts of the other two branches unconstitutional. | X | | X |
| 81. Larger complex bureaucracies result from the growing governmental roles in mature, industrial societies. | | | X |
| 82. Selective recruitment of bureaucracy may be and often has been responsible for its definition of its political role. | | | X |
| * 83. Constitutions may be written documents, but in some cases they exist wholly or in large part as custom or interpretation. | X | | |
| 84. Representative democracies have almost entirely replaced direct democracy, largely for the practical reasons of greater numbers and geographical area and the increased need for expertise in policy-making. | X | | |
| * 85. The individual citizen or participant in the political system approaches the political process with a complex of political attitudes, outlooks, values, and goals.. | X | | |
| * 86. Political activity, which the individual seeks his goals and interests through the political system, takes any number of forms, depending on the nature of the system, and varies greatly in incidence. | X | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| centralization or decentralization of power within rties is related to the centralization of authority olitical system as a whole. | X | X | X | | |
| ature is directly a product of the electoral and system which produces it; the composition and loyal- members affect access of different groups in society slative body. | X | | | | |
| ays greater homage than unitary systems to local dif- autonomy but it also pays the greater price in in- and diversity. | | | | X | |
| on of powers is intended to and does produce institu- ock and delay more often than the parliamentary . | X | | | X | |
| is ruled out of the operation of parliamentary systems pendence of the cabinet on the on-going support of a of the legislators. | X | | | | |
| al importance of the judiciary depends largely on not it has responsibility for declaring acts of the ranches unconstitutional. | X | | X | X | |
| lex bureaucracies result from the growing governmental ture, industrial societies. | | | X | | |
| ecruitment of bureaucracy may be and often has been for its definition of its political role. | | | X | | |
| ns may be written documents, but in some cases they or in large part as custom or interpretation. | X | | | | |
| ive democracies have almost entirely replaced direct largely for the practical reasons of greater numbers hical area and the increased need for expertise in ng. | X | | | | |
| ual citizen or participant in the political system the political process with a complex of political outlooks, values, and goals.. | X | | | | |
| ctivity, which the individual seeks his goals and in- ough the political system, takes any number of forms, n the nature of the system, and varies greatly in | X | | | | |

| | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | In |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 87. All of the places of earth are tied together by forces of man and nature. | | X | | |
| a. Man has speeded spatial interaction. Trade has drawn the world closer together. | | X | | |
| *1) People in most societies of the world depend upon people who live in other communities, regions, and countries, for goods and services and for markets for their goods. | | X | | |
| b. City life is heavily dependent upon trade. | | X | | |
| c. The development of cities is dependent upon the development of agricultural surpluses, specialization, and trade. | X | | | |
| *88. The world is a community of interdependent countries. (Important happenings is one part of the world affect other parts.) | X | X | X | |
| * a. War seems to be the result of multiple, interrelated causes. | X | | | |
| * b. War has serious physical and psychological effects upon people in wartorn areas. | X | | | |
| *1) Wars have an important economic impact upon people. | | | X | |
| 89. Nationalism usually makes people prepared to divert resources and effort into channels in which they will make a maximum contribution to national power. | X | | | |
| *a. Nationalism leads to a high degree of intense support within the country for the goals and instruments a nation chooses to use in international affairs. | X | | | |
| *90. Imperialism, and particularly attitudes of superiority by members of the imperialist country, give rise to feelings of frustration; when combined with the diffusion of nationalistic ideas, from other countries it helps give rise to feelings of nationalism. | X | | | |
| *91. Political revolutions are usually the result of multiple causes. | X | X | X | |
| *92. The international system may be looked at as a series of power relationships. | X | X | | |
| *a. There are many sources of national power in dealing with other nations. | X | X | X | |
| *1) Military capacity is an important factor in the development of national power, but not the only one or even the dominant one. | X | X | X | |
| #a) Military power as a means of national power depends upon the willingness to use it. | | X | | |

| . | Western Europe | U.S.S.R. | China | India | Summary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| of earth are tied together by forces of man | | X | | | |
| spatial interaction. Trade has drawn the world | | X | | | |
| ost societies of the world depend upon people<br>other communities, regions, and countries, for<br>ervices and for markets for their goods. | | X | | | |
| eavily dependent upon trade. | | X | | | |
| t of cities is dependent upon the development<br>surpluses, specialization, and trade. | X | | | | |
| mmunity of interdependent countries. (Important<br>part of the world affect other parts.) | X | X | X | X | |
| the result of multiple, interrelated causes. | X | | | | |
| s physical and psychological effects upon people<br>as. | X | | | | |
| n important economic impact upon people. | | | X | | |
| ly makes people prepared to divert resources<br>hannels in which they will make a maximum<br>ational power. | X | | | | |
| ads to a high degree of intense support<br>ntry for the goals and instruments a nation<br>in international affairs. | X | | | | |
| particularly attitudes of superiority by members<br>t country, give rise to feelings of frustration;<br>h the diffusion of nationalistic ideas, from<br>t helps give rise to feelings of nationalism. | X | | | X | |
| ions are usually the result of multiple causes. | X | X | X | X | |
| system may be looked at as a series of power | X | X | | X | |
| sources of national power in dealing with other | X | X | X | X | |
| pacity is an important factor in the development<br>power, but not the only one or even the dom- | X | X | X | X | |
| power as a means of national power depends upon<br>lingness to use it. | | X | | | |